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ELEMENTS

OF

USEFUL KNOWLEDGE.

VOLUME I.

CONTAINING A

HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL

ACCOUNT OF THE

UNITED STATES:

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY NOAH WEBSTER, JUN.

"Father of light and life! thou GOOD SUPREME!
O teach me what is good! teach me thyself!
Save me from folly, vanity and vice;
From every low purſuit! and feed my ſoul
With knowledge, conſcious peace, and virtue pure;
Sacred, ſubſtantial, never fading bliſs." THOMSON.

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DISTRICT of CONNECTICUT, ss.

BE it remembered that on the 21ſt day of July, in thi twenty ſeventh year of the Independence of the Unitec States of America, NOAH WEBSTER, jun. of ſaid Diſ trict, eſquire, hath depoſited in this office, the Title of a Book, the right whereof he claims as Author, in the word following, viz. "*Elements of Uſeful Knowledge, Volume 1ſt containing a Hiſtorical and Geographical account of the Unite States, for the uſe of Schools, by NOAH WEBSTER, jun.*" In conformity to the Act of the Congreſs of the Unite States, entitled "An Act for the encouragement of learning by ſecuring the copies of Maps, Charts and Books, to Au thors and Proprietors of ſuch copies, during the times there in mentioned."

SIMEON BALDWIN, *Clerk of the Diſtrict of Connecticut.*

A true copy of record, examined and ſealed by
S. BALDWIN, *Clerk of the Diſt. Con.*

July 21, 1802.

PREFACE.

THIS volume of "Elements of Useful Knowledge," is the beginning of a system which has been, for many years, in contemplation; but the execution of which has been heretofore delayed by other necessary employments. Notwithstanding the numerous improvements in the means of education, within the last twenty or thirty years, much remains to be done, towards facilitating the acquisition of general knowledge and useful science. The elementary works on geography, biography, natural history, and other subjects proper for the use of schools, seem to be imperfect in the want of order and method in the distribution of the several parts, and destitute of the moral, philosophical and practical remarks, which are necessary to enliven a narrative of facts, and by uniting the attractions of delight, with the labor of study, to allure the minds of youth along the difficult road to knowledge. Nature, in all her works, proceeds according to established laws, and it is by following her order, distribution and arrangement, that the human mind is led to understand her laws, with their principles and connection. It is also by carefully observing the uses of the productions of nature, and the adaption of every thing in creation to its particular purpose, that the mind is led to just views of final causes, and to such conceptions of the attributes of the divine author, as to confirm a belief in his being and perfections.

But if our elementary treatises, compiled for schools, are deficient in method, and in practical remarks, our whole system of instruction is still more defective in the number of sciences taught in ordinary schools and academies. Many of the most useful sciences and arts are not taught at all, or very imperfectly—nor have we books well calculated for the purpose.

The system here begun contemplates some improvement on the plan of general education hitherto pursued, and if public opinion should justify the attempt, it will be continued in a series of volumes, under the same title. It is the intention of the author to include in these, the *elementary* principles, by which are meant, the *known* truths and ascertained facts, which belong to all the more useful sciences, and all branches of practical knowledge. In pursuance of this design, it is intended

far as practicable, to ſeparate the ſciences, arts, and different branches of knowledge, arranging each, under a diſtinct head, and in treating each, to follow as far as may be convenient, the *order of time* and *of nature*.

The firſt volume begins with what is uſual in geographical treatiſes, a general view of the ſolar ſyſtem, of which this globe is a conſtituent part. It then explains the general ſtructure of the globe, the materials which compoſe it, and the diſtribution of thoſe materials upon the ſurface. Next follow the diviſions of the ſurface, comprehending a general view of the land, water, mountains, rivers and lakes. In the geographical deſcriptions, a view of the *natural ſtructure* of a continent precedes a conſideration of its *artificial ſtate*, ariſing from its ſettlement and improvement by men. As a knowledge of our own country is moſt intereſting to our own citizens, a deſcription of the American continent, and eſpecially of that part which is comprehended within the limits of the United States, tho not falling within the rule of chronological order, takes place of all other parts of this ſyſtem, and forms the ſubſtance of the two firſt volumes. This deſcription comprehends a view of the poſition and general ſtructure of the continent; a ſummary hiſtory of its aboriginal inhabitants, their ſettlement, character and manners. To this ſucceeds a brief hiſtory of the diſcovery of America and of the conqueſt and ſettlement of the ſeveral parts of it, by the Spaniards, French, Engliſh and Portugueſe—a ſhort account of the ſeveral grants, charters and ſettlement of the ſeveral Engliſh colonies, and of the moſt material occurrences in their political, civil, eccleſiaſtical and military affairs, from their firſt ſettlement to the formation of the preſent federal conſtitution. The preſent volume brings down this hiſtorical ſketch, to the important æra of the revolution.

With a view to the utmoſt practicable degree of correctneſs, in regard to American affairs, the author has conſulted the moſt authentic hiſtories and documents, which have hitherto been publiſhed; relying upon his own information, only in caſes falling under his own obſervation. It has been his aim to preclude every ſtatement or relation of facts not well authenticated, and opinions formed on ſlight evidence. When things are admitted as probable only, they are carefully diſtinguiſhed from thoſe which are known or underſtood to be facts.

In the manner of executing this work, it will be obſerved what great regard is had to the convenience of ſchools. It ſeems to be agreed that the catechetical is the form of writing *beſt adapted to the* underſtandings of children; but this is not eſſential, *provided the* paſſages which they are obliged to learn, *are not too long* and complex. The work here be-

is intended to be read by children in classes, or committed to memory. Those parts which are most proper to be learnt by heart, are thrown into short passages—and the whole is so divided that each pupil in reading will have a distinct portion. At the beginning of each passage, is placed the subject of it, expressed in few words, like the title to a discourse. The pupil will read this, as a title or text, to the passage; and when he commits the passage to memory, the words in Italics will furnish the teacher with the question proper to be proposed. This method will probably answer all the purposes of question and answer; at the same time, accommodate readers in classes, and save many pages in a volume, which would otherways be occupied with questions and the repetitions that result from them.

In writing the names of American rivers, mountains, lakes and places, we are subject to some uncertainty and confusion. Some of these names have been always written according to the sounds which the English annex to the Roman letters. In these words therefore, we find some degree of regularity. But many of the names have been borrowed from the French who discovered and settled particular parts of this continent; and as the sounds which the French annex to the Roman characters, are not known to common English readers, such names are liable to be mis-pronounced. The facility with which the English, within the last century, have adopted French words, without accommodating them to the genius of their own language, is as disreputable to the taste of the nation, as it has been injurious to the language. When the Romans borrowed and incorporated foreign words into their language, they gave them a Roman orthography, and terminations; as in Britannia, Gallia, Hispania, Herthus. The French and Spaniards do the same; as in Martinique, Dominique, Amerique—Martinico, Dominico, Americo—each nation suiting the orthography to the genius of its own language. But the English, neglecting the beauty and regularity of their own language, adopt foreign words in their foreign spelling; thus incommoding all ordinary readers among their own citizens, and multiplying anomalies, till the orthography of their language falls little short of the confusion of tongues at Babel.

As far as regards the names of places in the United States, we have a right to control the usage, and introduce a regular orthography. It is proper that the names of rivers, &c. used by the aboriginals of this country should be preserved, and as far as possible, restored, if lost; as they are so many historical monuments of the highest authenticity; but it is proper that all those names should be written with letters adapted to express *their true sound* in our own language. What the true

pronunciation of Indian names is, or ought to be, it m
be easy, in every case to decide. There is scarcely
them which has not been spelt in many different way
many of them have been abridged and softened, fr
hoarse guttural sounds of the savages, to a pronun
more congenial to our language. In general, it is to
served, that the popular pronunciation, which proceed
a natural tendency in people to fall into an easy, an
manner of speaking, furnishes the best rule to guide us
true orthography of these words. The affectation of p
ing, in writing, syllables which have been dropped in sp
or which are harsh and ungrateful to the ear, is not to
dicated; nor can any force of authority prevail agai
natural tendency to ease and uniformity, which gove
mass of people in every nation, and ultimately decides
every question in regard to language.

It is not a little to be regretted, that, in many instanc
primitive names of rivers and places have been neglecte
new names given to them, without the remotest affin
tween the names and the things. What an awkward fi
made by the rivers, lakes and mountains of America,
with the names of imaginary saints and apostles, the tri
of monkish superstition! What a shameful proof of pr
and absurdity, to lay aside the original names which w
propriate and descriptive, and substitute the unm
names of St. Lawrence, St. Pierre, and St. Croix! It
time to correct these absurdities, and it may not be too

It is not necessary, nor proper to swell the preface
work, by expatiating on its merits. It is sufficient to
that it is intended to carry, into schools and families, th
ciples and facts which compose the more interesting
human knowledge, and which are capable of enlarg
minds of our citizens, and directing their hands to usef
ployments. These principles are as necessary for the ing
mechanic and husbandman, as they are useful and orn
to the professional man and the scholar. Most of th
now used in schools for reading, are composed of fol
dactic discourses, general lessons of morality, or detach
sages of history. These are indeed useful; but why n
children read for common lessons, the known and est
principles in philosophy, natural history, botany, rheto
chanics, and other sciences? Many of these principles
made intelligible to youth; and where this cannot b
the pupil will become accustomed to the pronuciati
use of many terms of art, which otherwise he wo
learn; and the want of which is discoverable among
men even of liberal education. It is a great defect

of education to limit the reading of youth to books on particular ſubjects; ſo that when young men are uſhered ıe world, many and even moſt of them are unacquainted ven the appropriate terms uſed in other ſciences.

the advantages of a more diffuſive ſyſtem of inſtruction ɔt reſt here.—By reading frequently and repeatedly, paſſa- ıntaining juſt rules and principles, even above the com- ıſion of young minds, the pupils will learn many of by heart, and bear the impreſſions into future life; by means, when their underſtandings are more matured, vill be enabled to direct, to uſeful purpoſes, the princi- ith which they had ſtored their minds in ſchool. In ıanner, uſeful rules and facts, acquired in youth, like own in a good ſoil, will produce their fruit in riper years, create the harveſt of knowledge and improvement, to the community.

he language, the author has aimed to uſe a ſtyle, which n without being vulgar; and technical, without need- ſcurity.

very part of this work, occaſions frequently occur of ing moral and pious reflections from the ſubjects treat- On ſuch occaſions, ſpecial care is taken to lead the mind reader, from a conſideration of the order, beauty and of all parts of nature, to contemplate the neceſſity and nty of the exiſtence of a Creator, of infinite power, wiſ- nd goodneſs. This mode of employing natural philo- in the ſervice of religion and piety, has been practiced : ableſt authors and beſt men in all ages—it furniſhes rful aids to that firm belief in the being and providence d, and that pious veneration for his character and attri- , which are the prime ornaments of a wiſe man and a citizen.

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lements of Useful Knowledge.

SECTION I.

Of the Solar Syſtem.

HE ſolar ſyſtem conſiſts of the ſun, and the ſtars or globes which move round it, called planets.

f the Sun. The ſun is an immenſe body, placed the center of the ſyſtem, diffuſing light and heat ll the planets. Its diameter is eight hundred and y thouſand miles.

lanets. The primary planets, excluſive of thoſe h have been lately diſcovered, are ſeven; Mercury, us, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Herſchel.* heſe may be added, Ceres, Pallas and Hercules, h have been lately diſcovered. All the planets re- about the ſun, and receive their light and heat that reſplendent luminary.

condary Planets. The ſecondary planets are ſmall- bs which revolve round the primary planets, as the n, which moves round the earth in about twenty days. Jupiter has four moons, or ſattellites, and rn, ſeven, which conſtantly move round thoſe plan- —The planet Herſchel has ſix ſattellites.

ercury. Mercury is three thouſand two hundred twenty miles in diameter, and revolves round the in about eighty eight days, at the diſtance of nearly y ſeven millions of miles.

* Pronounced Herſhel.

Venus. Venus is about seven thousand, seven hundred miles in diameter, and revolves round the sun in about seven months and a half, at the distance of nearly sixty eight millions of miles.

The Earth. This globe which we inhabit, is a planet of nearly eight thousand miles in diameter and twenty five thousand miles in circumference. Its distance from the sun is about ninety five millions of miles, and its revolution round the sun makes our year, or three hundred and sixty five days, and nearly six hours.

Mars. Mars is in diameter four thousand two hundred miles. Its revolution about the sun is performed in one year and three hundred and twenty one days, at the distance of one hundred and forty four millions of miles.

Jupiter. Jupiter is the largest of the planets, having a diameter of ninety four thousand miles. Its distance from the sun is calculated to be nearly four hundred and ninety five millions of miles, and its revolution round the sun is performed in a little less than twelve years.

Saturn. Saturn has a diameter of seventy nine thousand miles. Its distance from the sun is calculated to be nearly nine hundred millions of miles, and its revolution round the sun is performed in twenty nine years and a hundred and sixty seven days. Saturn has two rings and a belt of spots.

Herschel. This planet, which bears the name of its discoverer, who first observed it in 1781, is nearly thirty five thousand miles in diameter; its distance from the sun, one thousand and eight hundred millions of miles, and its revolution about the sun is performed in eighty three years and a half.

Ceres and Pallas. Ceres was discovered by Mr. Piazzi, at Palermo in Sicily, in the year 1801. Its diameter is one hundred and sixty two miles. Pallas was discovered by Dr. Olbers of Bremen in 1802; its diameter is ninety five miles, and in its revolution it is not confined to the zodiac.

Hercules. In 1804, Dr. Olbers discovered another

planet, which is three times as large as Jupiter, and which, for its magnitude, he calls *Hercules*. Its distance from the sun is three thousand and forty seven millions of miles, and its revolution is calculated to be twenty four years. It has seven satellites.

Orbits of the Planets. The planets move round their centers, not in a true circle, but in a figure called an ellipsis, which somewhat resembles the form of an egg.

Perihelion and Aphelion. As the planets do not revolve round the sun in a circle, they approach nearer to the sun in one part of their orbits, than in other parts. That part of the orbit nearest the sun, is called the perihelion; and the part most distant, the aphelion.

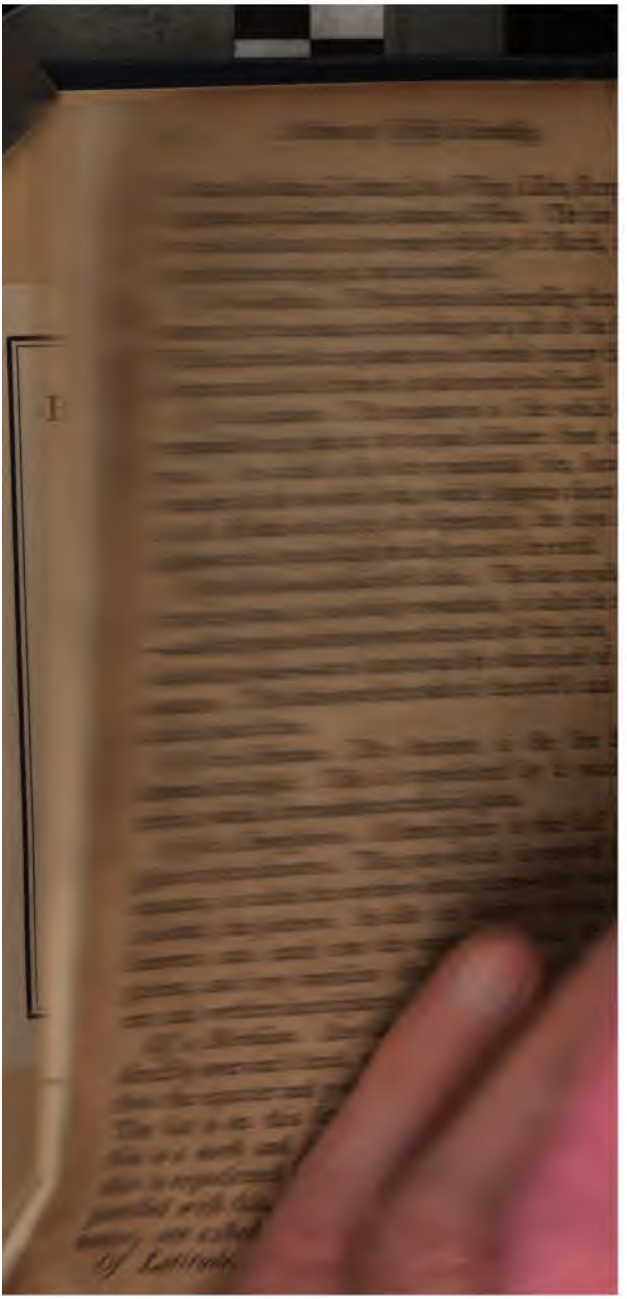
Laws of planetary motion. The nearer a planet is to the sun, or its center, the faster it moves. Thus Mercury moves much faster than Saturn. So a planet moves more rapidly in its perihelion, than in its aphelion. The earth is nearer the sun and moves faster in winter, than in summer; hence the summer with us is eight days longer than the winter.

Of Attraction and Repulsion. That principle in bodies which dispose them to unite and cohere, is called *attraction*. That principle which disposes them to separate or recede from each other, is called *repulsion*. The tendency of a planet towards the center of the system, is called its *centripetal* force; the power that impels it to recede from the center, its *centrifugal* force; and these combined are supposed to generate the circular motion of the planets.

Of a Circle. Every circle is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, a quarter of which or a quadrant is ninety degrees. Every degree is divided into sixty minutes, and each minute into sixty seconds.

Of the Zodiac. The Zodiac is a broad circle or belt in the heavens, containing the twelve signs, or constellations, most of which are represented by certain animals, by whose names they are called. Each sign comprehends thirty degrees.

Names of the Signs. The signs are called Arie



from the equator, either north or south. The distance from the equator to each pole, is ninety degrees or one quarter of a circle. When a place is in the fortieth degree, north or south of the equator, we say it is in the fortieth degree of north or south latitude.

Of longitude. The distance of places from each other, east and west, is called longitude. This may be reckoned from any given meridian, as from London, Ferro or Philadelphia. Thus a place 70 degrees west of London, is said to have 70 degrees of west longitude from London.

Of the Tropics. The tropics are the lines which mark the utmost limits of the sun's course, north in our summer, and south in winter. The sun is at the northern tropic about the 21st of June at the longest day, and at the southern tropic about the 21st of December, the shortest day. The first is called the summer solstice; the last, the winter solstice. These two lines are twenty three degrees and a half, one north and the other south of the equator.

Of the Zones. The zones or belts that surround the earth are five—the torrid, two temperate and two frigid. The torrid zone is comprehended between the tropics, in every part of which the sun is vertical once a year, and of course the weather is always warm. The temperate (or rather variable) zones lie between the tropics and the polar circles; that is from the twenty third to the sixty seventh degree of latitude. The frigid zones extend from the polar circles to the pole, and are cold.

Of Climates. In passing from the equator to the polar circles, that space or distance which increases the length of the longest day half an hour, is called a *climate*. But this word, in common language, signifies any region on the globe, in respect to its temperature.

Of Day and Night. The cause of day and night, is the revolving of the earth on its axis. One entire revolution takes place in twenty four hours, in which

time the earth turns every part of its surface to the sun. The light of the sun makes the day, and the shade of the earth makes the darkness of night.

Of the length of the Day. Within the tropics, where the sun is vertical or nearly so, the days are of nearly the same length at all times of the year; the variation not being more than one hour and a half. At greater distances from the equator, the difference between the longest and shortest day, is increased, until we arrive at the polar regions, where it is day for several months, and night the rest of the year.

Of the Moon. The moon is a small planet revolving round the earth. Its diameter is two thousand one hundred and eighty miles, and its mean distance from the earth about two hundred and forty four thousand miles. It passes round the earth once in twenty nine days nearly, making what is called a lunar month.

Uses and effects of the Moon's Influence. It is obvious that the moon has no small effect on the weather, as well as on the waters of the ocean. Changes of weather are most frequent and violent, within two days of the full or change. Earthquakes usually happen about the same periods, or when the moon is in her perigee or apogee, that is, nearest or farthest from the earth. The moon also is believed to affect animals and vegetables. Its light affords no perceptible heat, but fish and flesh when exposed to it, soon spoil.

Of the Tides. The tide is a rising or swell of the water in the ocean, which is caused by the moon. There are two tides in twenty four hours, one on the side of the earth next to the moon; and the other on the side opposit.

Of Eclipses. When the moon comes directly between the sun and earth, and hides the body of the sun or any part of it from us, we say the sun is *eclipsed*. When the earth passes directly between the sun and moon, and casts her shadow on the moon, we say the moon is *eclipsed*. An eclipse of the sun must happen *at the change of* the moon, and an eclipse of the moon *must be at the full.*

Of Summer and Winter. Heat is caused or excited by the rays of the sun, and when these are greatly accumulated or condensed, the heat must be great. Thus when the sun is nearly vertical, the rays fall directly on the earth, and being greatly accumulated, cause violent heat. This is the cause of the heat of summer. In winter, the rays of the sun strike the earth oblikely, and are so scattered as to make little heat.

Of the fixed Stars. Most of the stars which bespangle the heavens, are fixed, and never alter their places or relative positions. Of these about two thousand have been discovered and numbered, and as men increase the magnifying powers of their glasses, they discover new stars. The fixed stars appear to shine by their own light, and are supposed to be *suns* or centers of other systems of worlds. Their distance from us exceeds the utmost stretch of the imagination.

Of Comets. Comets, vulgarly called blazing stars, are bodies that move in very eccentric orbits. They revolve about the sun, and when they come within the solar system, become visible. They then fly off into remote regions of space, and are invisible for years. The periods of some of them are calculated to exceed three or four hundred years. How many belong to the system, is not known. They have a coma or tail, which sometimes appears like a bushy light about the body; at other times, like diverging streams of pale light, extending millions of miles into space.

Of the Milky Way. In one part of the heavens appears a broad path more luminous than the rest. The cause of this is unknown; but astronomers suppose this to be occasioned by clusters of stars so remote, as to be confounded in a mass, and not capable of being distinguished.

Of the Harmony of the System. All parts of the solar system are framed and adjusted to answer exactly the purposes intended by the Creator. The planets revolve in perfect order about their respective centers. The *position* and various motions of the earth are calculated to give to its inhabitants, all the varieties of

ſummer and winter, heat and cold, light and darkneſs, with the interchanges of rain and fair weather. So exact are the motions of the planets, the earth and the moon, that their poſitions and eclipſes may be calculated to a point of ſpace and a moment of time, for thouſands of years paſt or to come. All is order, harmony, beauty and grandeur; manifeſting the infinite wiſdom, power and goodneſs, of the glorious Creator.

SECTION II.

GEOGRAPHY.

Definition.

THE word *geography* is uſed to ſignify a deſcription of the terreſtial globe, comprehending its diviſions, the formation of its ſurface, its diſtributions into land and water, mountains, lakes, rivers, ſoil and productions, and an account of its inhabitants. A deſcription of any particular country or place is called *topography.*

Of the hiſtory of this Science. At what time the ſcience of geography began to be ſtudied, is uncertain. The nations which firſt cultivated the ſcience of aſtronomy, were the Babylonians, Egyptians and Chineſe; and a knowledge of aſtronomy is eſſential to a correct underſtanding of geography. Hiſtory informs us that Thales of Miletus firſt aſcertained the courſe of the ſun within the tropics; he divided the year into three hundred and ſixty five days, and calculated eclipſes. This man lived in the ſixth century before the Chriſtian era. But there is ſtrong evidence to induce our belief, that he and other early Greek aſtronomers, derived their firſt knowledge from the Egyptians, and theſe from the Chaldeans, among whom the ſcience was ſtudied, at a *very early* period. Their knowlege of aſtronomy, *which gave their* learned men the name of Magi, wiſe

men, afterwards degenerated into aſtrology, or the art of conſulting the poſition of the ſtars to foretel events —and hence ſprung the ſilly occupation of ſooth ſaying, for which the Chaldeans were noted to a proverb, in later ages.

Of the progreſs of Geography. It is recorded that Anaxamander, was the firſt Greek who conſtructed maps, globes, and invented the ſigns of the zodiac, ſix hundred years before Chriſt. But it is evident that the heavens were diſtributed into ſigns long before that time, and the writer of the book of Job, who lived at a much earlier period, was well acquainted with that diſtribution. Seſoſtris, king of Egypt, more than a thouſand years before Chriſt, is recorded to have made a map of the countries he conquered; and ſomething like this was done by the Jews, for the nine tribes, ſent by Joſhua to ſurvey their portion of the holy land, "deſcribed it in ſeven parts in a book." Joſephus alſo tells us, that Joſhua, when he divided the land, ſent perſons ſkilled in geometry to meaſure it. It is therefore probable that the Greek and Roman writers have given the name of *invention* in this as in many other caſes, to what was only an *introduction* of an art or branch of ſcience, from the eaſt, into their reſpective countries.

Of the ſtate of Geography in Rome. The Romans were led to a ſtudy of geography, by the progreſs of their conqueſts. Their armies penetrated into Perſia on the eaſt, to the Danube and Euxine, and to Germany and Britain on the north, to Spain and France on the weſt, and to Ethiopia, Lybia, and the Niger in Africa on the ſouth. Of theſe countries and of all within theſe limits, the Romans, in the age of Auguſtus, had obtained a tolerably correct knowledge, which is preſerved in the works of Pliny and Strabo. From theſe materials, Ptolemy, about one hundred and fifty years after Chriſt, compoſed his geography. This was the *ſyſtem which was* generally received and followe *till within a century.* It is however incorrect,

are the more modern and improved systems entirely free from the same charge.

Of the improvements in Geography. Within the last century, geography has received great improvements, from the exactness of astronomical calculations of the latitude and longitude of places. But still richer sources of improvement, have been the voyages and travels of navigators, and learned men, who have been sent by the courts of Europe to make observations. Able mathematicians were sent to measure a degree of latitude in the polar regions; and others to measure a degree under the equator, by which means the form of the earth, was proved to be not a perfect circle, but a little flatted at the poles. But no event has added more to our stock of geographical knowledge than the voyages of Capt. Cook, who, with able astronomers, sailed round the globe for the purpose of making discoveries. These and other voyages and travels have made us acquainted with many parts of the globe, before unknown; but many regions are yet wholly unknown, and others imperfectly explored.

Of the measure of the Earth. The ancients, in very remote ages, ascertained the form of the earth to be globular, or spherical; but the mode of finding the exact measure of it, has occupied the attention of the ablest men, in the most enlightened ages. The method first employed was to observe how much the distance between two places elevated or depressed the fixed stars, or the sun upon the meridian; and then measuring that distance. Eratosthenes made the circumference of the globe about thirty one thousand miles, and Posidonius, about twenty two thousand. In modern times, many able astronomers have attempted to find the exact circumference, by measuring a degree of latitude, and by this means have ascertained it with great precision, to be twenty five thousand miles.

Of the terms used in Geography. A *continent* is the *largest or a very* large division of land—an ocean is the *largest or a very* large portion of water, called also in

neral the *sea*. A continent and an ocean bear some oportion to each other in extent. An island is a por- n of land, surrounded by a more extensive body of ter, or bearing but a small proportion of surface to at of the circumjacent water. A lake is a body of wa- surrounded by land, and bearing but a small pro- rtion to the extent of the land inclosing it. A large dy of water, connected by navigable water with the ean, or bearing some proportion in extent to the sur- unding land, is called a *sea*. A very small body of and water is called a *pond*.

Of smaller divisions of Land. A long strip of land, ose bredth bears but a small proportion to its length, d which projects into the sea or is nearly inclosed by ter, is called a *peninsula*. When this is united with main land, by a still narrower neck of land, that ck is called an *isthmus*. A high point of land extend- g to a distance from the main shore into the sea, is lled a *promontory*; and the extreme end of any land us projecting into the sea, is called, if large, a *cape*; small, a *point*.

Of smaller divisions of Water. When the shore of the ain land retires from the general line of a continent, d leaves a vast bason of water within that line, the ter occupying that space is called a *gulf*. A smaller cess of the shore forms a *bay*. When also the water nearly embosomed or inclosed within land, it is cal- l a *bay*. A narrow channel of water between two ints or other divisions of land, connecting large bo- s of water, if of small extent, is called a *strait* or *rrows*; if the water is a long narrow tract or pas- ge, it is sometimes called a *sound*. But sound is also ed to denote a portion of water or narrow passage, be- een an island and the main land.

Of the form of the Earth. This globe which we in- bit is in the form of a ball or sphere, a little flatted at poles, nearly resembling an orange, and called an late spheroid. *A line* passing through the earth at *equator, is longer* than one passing through it from

pole to pole, by about thirty miles; in other words the equatorial diameter is about thirty miles longer than the polar diameter.

Of the materials composing the Earth. The two great divisions of the earth are land and water. But the solid part of the globe consists of a great variety of substances; such as rocks and stones, metals, minerals and fossils of various kinds, and probably no small quantity of fire. The surface of the land is generally a mold formed of decayed vegetables, as grass, plants, leaves, roots and woods. Below this mold lie strata or layers of sand, clay, gravel, marl and stone, differently arranged in different parts of the earth, in some places horizontal, in others, inclined; but the same layer is uniformly of the same thickness.

Of the surface of the Globe. The face of the globe presents to the eye of a distant spectator, two great divisions, land and water. From the north polar regions, to the thirty fifth degree of south latitude, the globe exhibits two vast continents, appearing like bands of earth. Between these are two immense oceans, which encompass both, and communicate with each other. In the midst of the southern ocean, is another tract of land which may be considered as a third continent, on the side of the globe opposite to Europe, Asia and America.

Of the first Continent. The largest portion of the earth, comprehending Asia, Africa and Europe, and most distinguished for population, arts and sciences, extends from the thirty fifth degree of south latitude, to the unexplored regions of the north, or about seven thousand five hundred miles in length. In bredth from the west coast of France to the eastern border of China, the extent is about seven thousand miles. It is estimated to contain about twenty five millions of square miles, or one eighth of the surface of the globe.

Of the second Continent. The continent, second in population, arts and improvements, as well as in extent, comprehends north and south America. This

extends from the fifty sixth degree of south latitude, to the north polar regions, and its length may be estimated at nine thousand miles. The bredth varies from fifty miles to three thousand, and its contents are estimated at fourteen millions of square miles.

Of the third Continent. The third continent extends from the eleventh to the forty fourth degree of south latitude, and from the one hundred and tenth degree of east longitude from London, to the one hundred and fifty fourth. Its length is about two thousand four hundred miles, and its bredth not much less. This land is named *New Holland*, and has been called an island; but its size entitles it to be ranked among the continents.

Of the Oceans. The largest body of water on the globe, is that which separates Asia from America; which is narrow in high northern latitudes, but under the equator, is ten thousand miles in bredth. This ocean extends and spreads over the southern portion of the globe, encompassing New Holland, and washing the southern extremities of Africa and America. From its calmness, it is called the *Pacific*, and in the southern latitudes, it is called the Great Southern Ocean.

Of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans. The expanse of water, which separates Europe and Africa, from America, is called the Atlantic, and is from fifteen hundred to five thousand miles in bredth. This ocean stretching southward to the extremities of Africa and America, unites with the Pacific on the west, and with the Indian ocean on the east. The latter is the tract of water which washes the eastern shore of Africa, and divides it from India. It is estimated at three thousand miles in bredth.

Of the uses of Oceans and Seas. The ocean, seas and lakes are vast reservoirs to receive and contain the water which falls in rain and snow; and which is constantly evaporated by the heat of the sun, or by the winds. The same water which constitutes the ocean is constant-

ly converted into invisible vapor, ascending into the air, and even forming a part of it—then being wafted by winds over the land, falls again in snow or in showers of rain, refreshing the vegetable world and replenishing the springs. Oceans and seas, lakes and rivers, serve also the purposes of commerce, by sustaining ships and bearing them, in a short time from place to place, with bulky commodities that cannot be transported by land. They are also peopled with innumerable species of fish, which furnish our tables with a vast variety of wholesome, nourishing and delicious food.

Of the face of the Globe. The external appearance of the globe is variegated with immense tracts of water, extensive plains, and elevated hills and mountains. From the structure of the surface, as well as from the necessity and utility of oceans and seas, it is evident that the vast hollows or basons containing the water, were intended, by the Great Author of Nature, to be the reservoirs of that element. Islands are the tops of mountains rising from the bottom of the deep, and serve as stations for the navigator to rest and refresh himself on long voyages, as well as to furnish a rich soil for the productions of various climates. The utmost depth of the ocean is not known—it is doubtless different in different places, and perhaps corresponds in a degree, with the elevation of the mountains on the adjacent continents, which is from one to three miles.

Of Mountains. The surface of the continents is checkered with an endless variety of plains, valleys, rivers, lakes, seas and elevations. Great elevations are called *mountains*—smaller ones have the name of *hills*. Mountains are divided into two kinds; those which appear to be *primitive*, or formed with the globe itself; and *volcanic*, or such as have been formed by ebulitions of subterraneous fire.

Of Primitive Mountains. The primitive mountains are those vast chains of elevated rocks, which are composed of huge masses of the species of stone called granite, which extend thro whole continents or large por-

tions of the earth. Such are the Allegany and Apalachian mountains in the United States, the Andes, or Cordilleras in South America, and the Alps in Europe.

MOUNTAINS IN AMERICA.

Of the Allegany. The Alleganean mountains run thro the United States, in the direction of north east and south west, at nearly an equal distance from the Atlantic ocean on one side, and the waters of the river Iroquois or St. Lawrence, the lakes and the Missisippi on the other. The great ranges, chains and peaks of these mountains are called by different names.

Of the different Ridges or Peaks. On the north east, and in the state of New Hampshire, are the White Mountains, so called from the whiteness of their tops. These are estimated to be at least eight thousand feet high, above the level of the ocean, and the base of them sixty miles in circumference. They may be seen at the distance of eighty miles. In these mountains are some of the sources of the river Connecticut, and other large rivers in New-England.

Of the Green Mountains. A chain of mountains between the Connecticut on the east and Lake Champlain and the Hudson on the west, extends thro the state of Vermont, from north to south, and is called the *Green Mountains.* Their altitude is from three to four thousand feet from the level of the ocean. This ridge is continued thro Massachusetts and Connecticut, where it is much less elevated. It terminates in steep precipices in the township of New-Haven.

Of the Katskill Mountains. On the west of the Hudson, in the state of New York, rises the Majestic Katskill, by a gradual ascent for many miles. Its highth is not known, but to the eye of a spectator, it appears of greater altitude than the Green Mountains in Vermont. Another range of mountains incloses the Hudson, about sixty miles above New York, where a deep and rocky channel seems to be formed for the river by a disrupture of the hills. These are called the *Highlands*, and constitute the seat of one

of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in this country, named Weſt-Point.

Of the Mountains in Pennſylvania. The chain of ridges is continued thro the northern and weſtern parts of Pennſylvania, under the names of the Kittakinny or Blue Mountains, in the county of Northampton, and thence thro Dauphiny, Cumberland and Franklin. Then commences the Allegany, which is the higheſt and center ridge, and which extends thro Virginia and the Carolinas. Towards the ſouthern extremity it has the name of Apalachian, and before it reaches the Gulf of Mexico it ſubſides into a level country.

Of the chief Ridges in the Southern States. The mountains from Pennſylvania ſouthward, are diſpoſed in ridges or piles, riſing one above another. The firſt conſiderable elevation is the Blue Ridge—weſtward of this is the north mountains; then Jackſon's mountain, and finally the Allegany, which being the higheſt above the level of the ocean, and not broken or divided by rivers, is called the ſpine or back bone of the country. Weſt of this is the Laurel Ridge, extending from Pennſylvania to Kentucky. From theſe run many ſmaller ridges or ſpurs, and between them are fertile valleys. They all converge into a ſingle ridge as they approach the Gulf of Mexico. The higheſt peaks are eſtimated to be four thouſand feet above their baſes.

Of the Mountains in South America. Thro the whole length of South America runs an immenſe chain of mountains, called the Andes or Cordilleras. The higheſt peaks of theſe, are found to be higher than any other mountains on the globe which are yet known, being no leſs than twenty thouſand feet, or almoſt four miles above the level of the ocean. The tops of them are perpetually covered with ſnow and ice, altho in the torrid zone, and many of the peaks are volcanoes, at times ejecting fire.

Of Volcanic Mountains. Mountains which are *thrown up* by ebulitions of ſubterranean fire, are called *volcanic.* Such are Etna in Sicily, Veſuvius in Naples,

and Hecla in Iceland. These are composed of a confused mass of lava, cinders, ashes, and substances which have been vitrified, or melted into glass by the force of heat. These substances, ejected from time to time, have, in a long course of years, accumulated to high mountains.

Of the size of Mountains. It is observable, that mountains generally bear some proportion in magnitude to the extent of the land on which they stand. Continents have large mountains, and islands smaller ones. This rule however is not without exceptions in regard to the altitude of mountains; for some small islands, as Teneriff, have very high mountains, but these are volcanic. But as mountains are intended, by the wise Author of nature, to contain the sources of rivers, and give them a currency towards the ocean by a suitable declivity, it is necessary that on large continents, where the sources of rivers are at a great distance from the sea, the land should rise to an elevation proportioned to that distance; otherwise the water would stagnate and become impure.

Of the utility of Mountains. If the surface of the globe was a level plain, the water falling in rain or snow, would remain stagnant until it should be all evaporated, or absorbed by the earth. In rainy seasons the face of the earth would be covered with water; in dry seasons it would be parched and destitute of moisture; for if there were no hills and mountains there could be no rivers. In this case, men would have no streams of fresh water to use for drink, for mills, for navigation, and for overflowing their fields. They would be compelled to use solely such water as they might find in wells; and as this would be nearly stagnant, it would be unwholsome.

Of the uses of Mountains. Mountains are elevated reservoirs of water, destined by infinite wisdom, to retain sufficient quantities of that element of indispensible necessity, to supply the rivers in all the vicissitudes of seasons. And these reservoirs are contrived with

wonderful skill, to retain what falls in rain or snow, and preserve it in purity. Water, upon the surface of the earth, exposed to a hot sun, would often become stagnant and impure, especially on a plain and surrounded by sand, or human dwellings. The lakes and ponds upon mountains are so placed as to be protected from artificial causes of impurity; surrounded only by the towering forest and inaccessible rocks.

Of the surface and structure of Mountains. If mountains were composed of solid unbroken rocks or hard clay, almost all the water falling on them would rush impetuously from their sides, sweeping away the fruits of human labor, and leaving the springs unsupplied. To prevent this effect, the surface of mountains is covered with trees, shrubs, leaves and rocks, which detain the falling showers, and impede the current. And the better to aid the design, the subterranean rocks are cleft and broken in every direction, to furnish inlets for the water to penetrate into the bosom of the earth. There sheltered from the causes which can render it impure, and from the solar rays, which might infuse too great a degree of heat, the water is lodged in subterraneous caverns, and preserved cool; or slowly winding in fissures, among ten thousand impediments, it gradually finds its way to the surface of the earth below, and issues in small harmless streams, to refresh the thirsty inhabitants of the vicinity, or fertilize their fields.

Of other uses of Mountains. Many mountains are so high that their tops are never free from ice and snow. But a part of these, dissolved by the heat of summer, furnish perennial streams of cool and fresh water for the inhabitants of the subjacent plains. Mountains also are the safe retreats and nurseries of numerous wild animals, which are very useful to man, supplying him with furs, skins and delicious food. In their bosoms are generated metals and minerals which are convertible to useful purposes without number. Their declivities are loaded with wood for fuel, timber for buildings, and herbs for medicinal uses. High lands are also the

regions of health, and freedom from the shackles of custom and vitious and corrupt society. The pale, emaciated inhabitant of the crouded city, and the sickly tenant of the marsh, grown yellow and languid, amidst the fetid vapors of autumn, visits the more temperate regions of the mountain, where breathing the pure, etherial gale, and drinking of the crystal fountain, he soon recovers his native bloom and vigor.

Of Caverns and Clefts. In large mountains are found deep pits, clefts and caverns, formed by nature, or by streams of water, or by earthquakes. Madison's cave, on the north side of the Blue Ridge in Virginia, extends into the earth three hundred feet. Another near the North Mountain extends horizontally four hundred feet. Another called the *Blowing Cave*, emits a current of air that prostrates weeds at the distance of twenty yards. This current is stronger in dry frosty weather, than in long periods of rainy weather.—In Antiparos, an island in the Grecian sea, is a cavern, eighteen hundred feet deep; and in Derbyshire, in England, is a gulf or cavern, which has been sounded to the depth of two thousand and eight hundred feet, without reaching the bottom. In 1646, a mountain in Machian, one of the Molucca islands, was rent asunder by an earthquake, and fire issuing forth, destroyed the neighboring settlements. In the Andes are clefts of a mile in width, opening immeasurable gulfs in the bowels of the earth.

Of the origin of Rivers. Rivers, rivulets, brooks or runs, are currents of water, flowing from the interior parts of continents and islands towards the ocean or towards some sea or lake. They have their sources in mountains or high lands, and are formed by small springs issuing from the earth. Many rivers proceed from ponds or lakes, but in such cases, these basons are supplied with water from springs. When the sources of rivers are near the sea, the streams are small; but *when the sources* are at a great distance, the small *streams find their* way along in hollow places, and

leys, descending from high lands, till uniting, they form a large current, which discharges the water into the ocean, or other capacious reservoir.

Of the sudden increase of Rivers. Subterranean springs supply water in moderate quantities and with a degree of uniformity. But all springs are fed by rains or snow; and not by drawing water from the ocean by subterranean channels, nor by vapors condensed on the tops of mountains, unless in the form of mist or rain. When water falls in rain, part of it is absorbed by the earth, and goes to replenish the springs. The remainder, or that part which cannot penetrate the earth as fast as it falls, runs off upon the surface, and first entering the channels of small streams, and by them conducted to larger rivers, it swells them suddenly, and often occasions floods which deluge the neighboring fields. The sudden melting of snow produces a like effect.

Of the size and current of Rivers. As rivers are the channels by which the water, falling on land, is conveyed to the ocean, they must necessarily be in proportion to the extent of the country where they flow. Thus the largest mountains and most extensive tracts of land produce the largest rivers. The Maranon in South America, the largest river on the globe, has its sources in the Andes, the largest mountains. The current of a river is spherical, rounding, or highest in the middle, which is owing to the force and pressure towards the middle, by means of the greater rapidity of the water in that part of the current. The water on the sides runs slower; being impeded by striking or rubbing against the banks; and these obstacles occasion eddies or small whirlpools, near the sides of a river.

Of the structure of the surface of North America. If we survey that part of North America which is northward of the gulf of Mexico, we observe the land rising gradually from the Atlantic on the east, for three or four hundred miles westward, till it forms an immense

hain of mountains, running parallel with the coaſt, rom the white hills in New-Hampſhire, or rather rom Nova Scotia, to Georgia. Among theſe mountains are the ſources of the rivers which run eaſtward nd ſouthward, and diſcharge their waters into the tlantic; and of other rivers which run weſtward to he Miſſiſippi, the Iroquois and the Lakes. Weſt of he Miſſiſippi, the land riſes into a ſimilar range of igh lands, which contain the ſources of the rivers, unning eaſtward into the Miſſiſippi, and weſtward nto the Pacific.—North of the Iroquois and the great kes, the land riſes into a chain of mountains in which re the ſources of the ſtreams which fall into the Iroquois on the ſouth and Hudſon's Bay on the north.

Of the Miſſiſippi. The Miſſiſippi is a majeſtic river, ne of the largeſt on the globe, and the common channel convey to the ocean, the waters of a territory nearly thouſand miles in bredth, by more than two thouſand length. The country weſt of it is but little known, ut probably the river is near the center of this part f America, or equidiſtant from the Atlantic on the aſt and the Pacific on the weſt. Its ſources are certain lakes between the forty fifth and forty ſeventh egrees of north latitude, as the Gooſe Lake, Marſhy ake, but eſpecially Turtle Lake, the moſt northerly ſource. Its courſe is very winding, in ſome places, nd is ſuppoſed to be three thouſand miles in length. t is from one to two miles in bredth and in ſome laces, more than two hundred feet deep. Its current s ſo rapid, eſpecially when ſwelled with ſpring floods rom rain and ſnow, that it is difficult to aſcend it, ut eaſy to deſcend, in boats and ſmall veſſels. It s however navigable to the falls of St. Anthony, more han two thouſand miles from its mouth. This river s the weſtern boundary of the United States. *

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* *The word Miſſiſippi, in the language of the natives, is ſaid to nify, the ſire or king of rivers.*

Of the Iroquois. The Iroquois, usually called St. Lawrence, is a very large river, and the outlet or channel by which the superfluous waters of five large lakes and their numerous tributary streams, are conveyed to the ocean. Its source is Lake Superior, or rather the rivers which fall into it. From this Lake is a channel of communication with Mishigan and Huron, and thence with Erie and Ontario, from which the waters issue in a large river, which running to the north east, unites with the ocean opposite to Newfoundland, where it forms a large bay. From the extreme western part of the Superior, to its junction with the ocean, is more than two thousand miles.

Of the rivers which run into the North Sea. To the northward of the sources of the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, originate several large rivers, as the Albany, the Severn and the Churchill which pour their waters into Hudson's Bay. The Makenzie, so called from the traveller, who sailed down the river to tide water, runs into the North Sea. The Unjiga, Saskashawin and others discharge their waters into large lakes or the North Sea. The land on which these great rivers and the Mississippi and St. Lawrence have their sources, must be the highest in North America; as the waters descend to the ocean in opposit directions.

Of the Rivers on the west of the Mississippi. The country west of the Mississippi is but little known; but several large rivers from the west are found to discharge their waters into this noble stream. Among these are the St. Pierre which enters the Mississippi, just below the falls of St. Anthony and the Missorie, which is so large as to be supposed the principal branch of the Mississippi. The latter has been explored more than a thousand miles, and probably has its sources in the high lands, near the heads of the rivers which pour their waters into the Pacific. It enters the Mississippi *one* hundred and seventy miles above the Ohio; and its *waters are said* to be deep, muddy and cold.

SECTION III.

Rivers of the United States.

Rivers near the sources of the Mississippi.

THERE are several considerable streams which arise on the south west of Lake Superior, and their waters into the Mississippi; as the St. Fran- St. Croix, and Chippeway; but these are imper- y known. The Wisconsin is a large river, whose ces are west of Lake Mishigan. Its waters are able for two hundred miles or more, from its junc- with the Mississippi. Between this river and Fox r is a carrying place of no great extent; and by Fox River is a communication to Green Bay, and Mishigan.

f the Illinois. The Illinois is a large river origina- in the country south of Lake Mishigan, and run- south westerly, it unites with the Mississippi, one lred and ninety miles, north of the Ohio, and teen miles above the confluence of the Missorie Mississippi. The Illinois furnishes boatable wa- for three or four hundred miles; and the adja- country is among the most fertile tracts in the ted States.

f the Kaskaskia. The Kaskaskia is a considerable between the Wauboth and Illinois, which is boat- one hundred and thirty miles, and enters the Mis- pi ninety miles above the Ohio. The adjoining dows are excellent land.

f the Ohio. The Ohio is one of the most remarka- as well as beautiful rivers in the world. It is ied by two main branches, the Allegany on the h, and the Monongahela on the south, whose junc- , at Pittsburg, constitutes this river. The course ie Ohio is nearly south west, but very winding, so its length *from* Pittsburg to its junction with the *ippi is almost* twelve hundred miles, while a strait *is scarcely half* the distance. Its bredth is from

four to six hundred yards, and near the Miſſiſippi, on thouſand yards.

Of the Banks and Navigation of the Ohio. The bank of this river are ſo high that, altho it is ſubject to grea freſhets in ſpring, the waters do not, except in a few places, ſwell ſo as to overflow the adjacent land. I dry ſeaſons, the water, for ſeventy miles below Pitt burg, is ſo ſhallow, as to make navigation difficul But in other ſeaſons, a ſloop may deſcend from Pitt burg; and at all times, its waters are boatable. I one place only is the navigation rendered difficult b rapids. It receives the waters of ten or twelve navig ble rivers, and many more ſmall ſtreams.

Of the Muſkingum. The Muſkingum ariſes in th country ſouth of Lake Erie, and after a ſoutherly cour of ſeveral hundred miles, falls into the Ohio, one hun dred and ſeventy miles below Pittſburg. Its width its confluence, is two hundred and fifty yards. I current is gentle, confined by high banks which a not inundated by freſhets, and boatable nearly to i ſource. The lands adjoining are excellent.

Of the Hockhocking. This is a conſiderable river fro the north which unites with the Ohio two hundr miles below Pittſburg. Its banks are high, its me dows good and its waters boatable about ſeventy mil from its confluence with the Ohio.

Of the Great Kanhaway. This is a large river ori inating in the Alleganean Mountains, and after a win ing courſe, northerly and weſterly, uniting with t Ohio, two hundred and eighty three miles below Pitt burg. Its waters are deep enough to be navigable, b its navigation is much impeded by falls and rapids.

Of the Siota. The Siota is a conſiderable rive originating in the country ſouth of Lake Erie, runni ſoutherly and falling into the Ohio, three hundred a ninety miles below Pittſburg. It has a gentle curre and its banks furniſh excellent meddow, which is ove flowed by freſhets in the ſpring. It is boatable two hundred miles from its mouth.

Of the Great Miami. This is a river of the North Weſtern Territory, and like the Siota, has its ſources in the country ſouthward of the great Lakes, and falls into the Ohio, five hundred and fifty miles below Pittſburg. Its channel is ſtony, and its current rapid, but not obſtructed by falls. Its waters are boatable, and by means of its head ſtreams, it offers an eaſy communication with the Wauboſh and Lake Erie.

Of the Licking. The river Licking has its ſources in the mountains, near the heads of the Cumberland, and running north weſterly, about one hundred miles, it unites with the Ohio. In its courſe, it interlocks with the Red River, the north and main branch of the Kentucky.

Of the Kentucky. The Kentucky is a conſiderable river, which ariſes in the Laurel Ridge, and watering the ſtate of the ſame name, unites with the Ohio, ſix hundred and twenty eight miles below Pittſburg. Its waters are boatable one hundred and eighty miles from its mouth.

Of the Buffalo. The Buffalo River is a conſiderable ſtream falling into the Ohio on the ſouth ſide, about nine hundred and twenty five miles below Pittſburg. It is about two hundred yards wide, and boatable to the diſtance of one hundred and fifty miles. Its banks furniſh a luxuriant ſoil.

Of the Wauboſh, [or Wabaſh.] The Wauboſh is a noble river, of the North Weſtern Territory, ariſing in the country weſt of Lake Erie, and after winding thro a fertile in country, a ſouth weſterly direction, mingling its waters with the Ohio, one thouſand and twenty miles below Pittſburg, and within one hundred and ſixty five of the Miſſiſippi. It is two hundred and ſeventy yards wide and boatable four hundred miles from its mouth, and when ſwelled with raine, two hundred miles further.

Of Cumberland, or *Shawny River.* The Cumberland is a conſiderable ſtream, ariſing in the Alleganean ridg-

es, and after a circuitous course thro the states of Kentucky and Tennessee, uniting with the Ohio, about seventy miles from the Mississippi. It is boatable one hundred and eighty miles from its mouth.

Of the Tennessee, or Cherokee River. This is a large river, which has its sources between the ridges, called Bald and Cumberland Mountains. After a very winding course, in which it waters the state of Tennessee, it unites with the Ohio, thirteen miles below Cumberland river. It is the largest of the tributary streams of the Ohio, being in general four hundred yards wide, and is boatable nine hundred miles from its mouth.

Of the Yazoo. The Yazoo river arises in the Chickesaw territory, runs south westerly and falls into the Mississippi. It is boatable about one hundred miles, and its adjacent lands are very fertile. The last fifteen rivers here described, all navigable, and some of them for several hundred miles, are the tributary streams of the Mississippi on the east, which descend from the mountains and water an immense tract of valuable land. To these we may add a multitude of inferior streams.

Rivers which discharge their waters into the Gulf of Mexico.

Of Pearl River. On the east of the Mississippi, several large rivers flow southward into the gulf of Mexico. One hundred and five miles from the Mississippi, is Pearl River which has its sources in the country of the Choctaws. It is very crooked, with low banks which are annually overflowed; but is boatable one hundred and fifty miles from the sea.

Of the Pascagola. Sixty miles east of the Pearl, is the Pascagola, nearly of the same magnitude. It rises in the Mississippi territory and affords boatable water about one hundred and fifty miles from its mouth, at the gulf of Mexico.

Of Mobill Bay and River. The Mobill is a bay of about thirty miles in length, and ten or twelve in

breedth, extending from the gulf of Mexico northward, and affording water for ſmall veſſels. Further northward the bay or river becomes narrower, and forks into two principal branches, one of which is called the Tanſaw or Spaniſh branch. Theſe branches incloſe the iſland of Mobill, eight leagues in length. A few miles above, the Mobill takes the name of Tombigby, and is joined by the Alabama, a large river formed by the confluence of the Cooſaw and Tallapoſe.

Of the branches of the Mobill. The Tombigby is a conſiderable river originating in the country of the Chickeſaws, and augmented by many ſmaller ſtreams, eſpecially Sipſey's river on the eaſt. It is navigable for ſmall veſſels one hundred miles. The Cooſaw ariſes in the hilly country of the Cherokees, and running two or three hundred miles, joins the Tallapoſe, a conſiderable river from the eaſt, and theſe form the Alabama. Theſe rivers furniſh boatable water into the interior country and penetrate a rich and luxuriant ſoil.

Of the Apalachicola. The Apalachicola or Cowetas river riſes in the mountains, which are a continuation of the Alleganean ridges, in the country of the Cherokees, near the confines of South Carolina. The principal ſtreams which form this river are the Chatahochy, Euchy, Chatahoſpa and Flint river. The Flint is one hundred miles in length; ariſing on the high lands eaſt, and uniting with the principal ſtream, one hundred and twenty miles from the ſea. Twenty miles from the ſea, this river forks and enters the gulf of Mexico by two large channels; the weſtern one is called the river Caliſtobile. This river and its branches furniſh extenſive inland navigation; the main river being four hundred miles in length.

Of the Apalachy. The Apalachy has its ſources in the ſtate of Georgia, and running ſouth weſterly about one hundred and thirty miles, enters the bay of the ſame name in the Mexican Gulf. This is a fine river, and from the mouth of it runs the old Spaniſh road to

St. Auguſtine. The diſtance from St. Marks on the Apalachy to St. Auguſtine is one hundred and eighty eight miles. There are ſix or eight other conſiderable rivers which fall into the Gulf of Mexico from the north, but the country and the rivers are little known.

Rivers which diſcharge into the Atlantic on the eaſtern ſhore of America.

RIVERS IN GEORGIA.

Of the St. Mary. The St. Mary proceeds from the Wakafanogee, a moraſs or ſwamp of three hundred miles in bredth, and running eaſterly falls into the Atlantic. It is about one hundred and fifty miles in length, and navigable for ſmall craft about ninety. This river is a part of the ſouthern boundary of the United States, ſeparating them from Florida.

Of the Satillas. The Great Satilla is a ſecondary, but large river of Georgia, originating in the high grounds, and runing a ſouth eaſterly courſe about two hundred miles, till it enters the Atlantic, in the county of Camden. This furniſhes an inland navigation to a conſiderable diſtance; the little Satilla is of leſs conſideration.

Of the Altamahaw. The Altamahaw is a river of nearly five hundred miles in length. Beſides many other conſiderable ſtreams the Ocony and the Oakmulgy unite to form this noble river. The Ocony ariſes in the mountains near the ſources of the Apalachicola and runs a ſouth eaſterly courſe till it meets the Oakmulgy from the weſt. The bredth of the Altamahaw is from four to five hundred yards. It enters the Atlantic by two channels, and furniſhes an inland navigation of great extent.

Of the Ogeechy. The Ogeechy is a ſecondary river in Georgia, but of conſiderable magnitude. Like all the rivers on the Atlantic coaſt, it has its ſources in the high lands weſtward, and running a ſouth eaſterly courſe of nearly two hundred miles, diſcharges

waters into the Atlantic, about eighteen miles southward of the Savanna.

Of the Savanna. The Savanna is formed by two main streams, whose sources are in the Alleganean mountains—the Tugelo on the south, and the Keowee on the north. It receives a great number of tributary streams, and pursuing a south easterly direction, for a distance of near four hundred miles, enters the Atlantic. It bears large vessels to the city of Savanna, seventeen miles, and boats of a large size to Augusta, one hundred miles further. This river is the boundary between Georgia and South Carolina.

RIVERS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

Of the rivers of secondary size. Between the Savanna and the Santee are the Coosaw, Combahee, Ediſto, Cooper and Ashley, which are considerable streams, arising in the country westward, and seeking the Atlantic, in a south easterly direction. The Coosaw enters the sea at Beaufort; the Cambahee enters Helena Sound; the Ediſto is discharged by different channels which encompass the island of that name. The Cooper and Ashley approach each other and join below Charleston, forming the bay or harbor before that city. These all furnish navigable water, and especially the Ediſto. North of the Santee is the Wenee, which unites with the Pedee, just above its entrance into Winyaw Bay. Besides these, the shore of South Carolina is indented with many smaller streams, creeks or inlets which are navigable.

Of the Santee. In addition to the Savanna, which washes the state of South Carolina on the south, this state boasts of the Santee and the Pedee, which are large and navigable rivers. The Santee is formed by three great streams, the Catawba, the Broad and the Saluda; besides a multitude of smaller tributary streams. From the junction of the Broad and the Saluda, the stream which they form is called the Congaree, *to its confluence* with the Santee. The Catawba

has its sources in North Carolina. The Santee is now connected with the Cooper, by a canal by which boats pass from the interior country to Charleston. The Santee enters the ocean by two channels, about forty miles northward of Charleston.

Of the Great Pedee. The Pedee has its main sources in North Carolina, upon the Alleganean mountains, where it is called Yadkin. After it enters South Carolina, it receives the waters of the Lynch, Black River and the Little Pedee, besides many smaller streams. It passes Georgetown and enters Winyaw Bay, which communicates with the ocean, a few miles north of the Santee.

RIVERS IN NORTH CAROLINA.

Of the Clarendon, or Cape Fear River. The Clarendon descends from the mountains, in two main branches, the Haw and Deep Rivers, which unite and form a large navigable stream, called the North West Branch. This is enlarged by Black River and the North East Branch, and near the ocean is three miles wide. The North East Branch bears large vessels twenty miles from its entrance into the ocean; and the North West Branch, about thirty miles, and is boatable about ninety miles, to Fayettevill. It is two hundred miles in length. Near the union of the two branches stands Wilmington, a chief commercial town of the state. This river enters the Atlantic by two channels, of which the southern affords the best water for ships.

Of the Nuse. The Nuse is a considerable river, arising in the mountains, and receiving in its course, besides smaller streams, Little River, Cotecheny and Trent, enters Pamplico Sound. At the confluence of the Nuse and the Trent stands Newbern, the most considerable town in the state. The river bears sea vessels twelve miles above Newbern, about fifty miles from the *sound, and* boats ascend nearly two hundred miles.

Of Tar River. The Tar has its origin in the high *lands,* and running south easterly is augmented by the

waters of Sandy Creek, Fishing Creek and Beech Swamp Creek, which enter it from the north west. The Tar falls into Pamplico Sound; is navigable about forty miles to Washington, and boatable to Tarborough, about fifty miles further.

Of the Roanoke. The Roanoke is a large river formed by the junction of two main branches, the Dan, which has its sources along the north border of North Carolina; and the Staunton, which arises between the Blue Ridge and the North Mountain, in Virginia. After a south easterly course of three hundred miles, it enters Albermarle Sound. Its current is rapid and much obstructed by falls, so that small vessels only ascend about sixty or seventy miles.

Of the Chowan. The Chowan is formed by three main streams, the Meherrin, Nottaway and Black Water, all of which have their sources in Virginia. Their general course is south easterly, and uniting their waters within North Carolina, they are called Chowan, which is discharged into Albermarle Sound, a little north of the Roanoke.

Rivers in Virginia.

Of the navigable waters of Virginia. All the large streams in Virginia pour their waters into the Chesapeek, a navigable bay of two hundred and sixty miles in length and from five to eighteen in bredth. This bay opens into the Atlantic in latitude thirty seven degrees north, between the Capes, Charles and Henry. It penetrates Virginia on the North and a great part of Maryland, affording water for the largest ships, and safe navigation. It is never froze, except in winters of unusual severity.

Of the James, or Powhatan. The Powhatan, or James River, is formed by many head streams, but chiefly by the Fluvanna, and Rivanna. The Fluvanna, or principal stream, has its sources in the Allegany, where it bears the name of Jackson's River; and penetrating the three ridges of mountains, called Jackson's, the North and the Blue Ridge, it receives many

ſmall ſtreams, and eſpecially the Rivanna and Chickahominy from the north, and the Appomattox from the ſouth, and enters the Cheſopeek at the ſouth end of the Bay, weſt of Norfolk. It bears ſmall veſſels nearly to Richmond, more than one hundred miles, and boats nearly to the Blue Ridge.

Of York River. York River is a broad ſtream or bay, formed by two conſiderable rivers, the Pamunky and Mattapony, which have their ſources on the Weſt Mountain, eaſt of the Blue Ridge. This river is navigable for large ſhips, to the confluence of its two chief branches. The Pamunky is boatable more than one hundred miles above the confluence and the Mattapony, about ſeventy. On the ſouth ſide of this river is Yorktown, diſtinguiſhed, in the annals of the United States, for the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army in 1781—the great event which decided the revolutionary war.

Of the Rappahannoc. The Rappahannoc is a conſiderable river ariſing on the Blue Ridge, from ſeveral ſtreams, the principal of which is called the Rapid Ann. It enters the Cheſopeek at nearly an equal diſtance from York River and the Patomac. It bears ſmall veſſels about one hundred miles, and nearly to Frederickſburg.

Of the Patomac. The Patomac, a large navigable river, proceeds from a number of conſiderable ſtreams, which ariſe between the different ridges of mountains, eaſt of the Allegany, and which run a north eaſterly courſe, till they unite with the main branch. The largeſt tributary ſtream is the Shenandoah, which, after traverſing a hundred miles along the weſtern baſe of the Blue Ridge, as if to find a vent, unites with the Patomac, which ruſhes through the mountain, in a paſſage evidently formed by the violence of the ſtream, and exhibiting a magnificent ſpectacle. It then purſues a ſouth eaſterly courſe to the Cheſopeek.

Of the advantages of the Patomac. The Patomac, which is ſeven miles wide at its entrance into the Chef-

opeek, bears large ſhips to Alexandria ; ſmaller veſſels to the falls above Georgetown ; where by means of locks, boats are conveyed to the river above, and borne to Fort Cumberland, offering an extenſive inland tranſportation by water. The river is more than a mile wide at Alexandria. At the junction of a conſiderable creek, called the eaſtern branch, ſtands Waſhington, the ſeat of the national government, on the north or Maryland ſide. Nearly oppoſite is Alexandria, a commercial town ; and nine miles below, on a high bank, at a bend in the River, is Mount Vernon, the ſeat of the illuſtrious Waſhington. This river ſeparates Virginia from Maryland.

RIVERS IN MARYLAND.

Of ſeveral ſmall rivers. On the weſt ſide of the Cheſopeek are the Patuxent, the Severn, and Patapſco ; all from the north weſt and the latter of which enters the bay, juſt below Baltimore. On the eaſt ſide are the Elk, Cheſter, Choptank, Nanticoke, Wicomico, and Pocomoke ; all of which run a ſouth weſterly courſe, to the bay. Theſe and many ſmaller ſtreams and creeks offer navigable water to ſome diſtance into the interior country. The Suſquehanna, a large river, forms a part of the waters of Maryland, but its ſtream is principally within the limits of Pennſylvania.

RIVERS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

Of the Suſquehanna. The Suſquehanna is a large river, formed by two main branches—the eaſtern branch which has its ſources in the ſtate of New-York, and receives the Tioga ſoon after it enters Pennſylvania, —and the weſtern branch whoſe ſources are northward and weſtward of the Bald Eagle Mountain. The river runs a ſoutherly courſe and enters the head of the Cheſopeek, in Maryland. In its courſe it is augmented by many ſmall rivers, among which are the Juniatta and Coneſtoga. The navigation is rendered difficult by the falls or rapids, about twenty miles above its *mouth, but the river above is boatable almoſt to its ſources.*

Of the Schuylkill, and Lehi. The Schuylkill ſecondary river, proceeding from two branches, w ſources are weſtward of the Blue Ridge, or the K kinny Mountains. It runs ſouth eaſterly and ente Delaware about ſix miles below Philadelphia. Its ters are boatable. The Lehi has its ſources weſt o Blue Ridge, runs eaſterly about ſeventy five miles, enters the Delaware at Eaſton. It is boatable a thirty miles.

Of the Delaware. The Delaware is a large na ble river, whoſe ſources are in the ſtate of New Y Its principal head branches are the Mohackis and Popachton; the latter of which riſes in the Ka Mountains on the eaſt. This river runs ſoutherly, paſſing Trenton, Philadelphia, and Wilmington, o into a ſpacious bay of ſixty miles in length, w communicates with the ocean by a paſſage of f ſeven leagues in bredth, between the Capes, Henl on the ſouth and May on the north. It bears a ſh the line to Philadelphia, about one hundred and tw miles; and ſmall craft to Trenton falls, and boat burthen one hundred miles further. This river div New Jerſey from Pennſylvania.

RIVERS IN NEW JERSEY.

Of the Rariton. The Rariton proceeds from branches, the north which riſes in Morris County the ſouth in Hunterdon County. Running eaſterl paſſes New Brunſwic, and enters a ſpacious bay Amboy, oppoſite to Staten Iſland, where it forms excellent harbor. It is navigable for ſmall veſſels Brunſwic, at which place is an elegant bridge over river, ſupported by ſtone piers.

Of the Paſſaic and Hackenſac. The Paſſaic riſes Morris county, and winds its way, in a very irreg courſe, to the waters of the Atlantic. It unites w the Hackenſac, and forms Newark Bay, oppoſit to north end of Staten Iſland. The falls in this river *Patterſon are highly* romantic.—The Hackenſac ha *ſources in the* Highlands, in the ſtate of New Y

and running ſouth, unites with the Paſſaic in Newark Bay. Theſe rivers bear ſloops a few miles and over them are handſome bridges, on the public road between New York and Philadelphia.

RIVERS IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

Of the Hudſon. The Hudſon has two great head ſtreams; one which ariſes in the high lands weſt of Lake Champlain; the other, called the Mohawk, which ariſes in Steuben county, near the waters which run weſtward. This branch is about one hundred and thirty miles in length—is boatable and opens an eaſy communication with the weſtern lakes. It enters the Hudſon by two ſtreams nearly oppoſit to Lanſingburg about eight miles above Albany. Juſt above its confluence, is the fall or Cohoze. The Hudſon runs ſouth and enters the Atlantic below Staten Iſland. Between Staten Iſland and New York, it forms a ſpacious bay, and is joined by an arm of the ſea called Eaſt River. It bears ſhips of a large ſize to the city of Hudſon, one hundred and thirty miles, and ſmall craft forty miles further to Lanſingburg, near the rapids.

Of the ſecondary rivers. In the weſtern part of this ſtate is the Geneſee, a conſiderable river, which riſes in the mountains of Pennſylvania, and running a northerly courſe, about a hundred miles, it enters the Ontario.—Seneca river has its ſources in the Canandarqua, Seneca and Cayuga Lakes. In its courſe, it receives the waters of the Oneida Lake, and enters the Ontario. The Oſwegatchie enters the Iroquois, near the northern boundary of the States. The Wallkill riſes weſt of the Highlands, and running a north eaſterly courſe, enters the Hudſon, below Kingſton. The Croton, which has its ſources in New Fairfield in Connecticut, and the eaſtern part of New York ſtate, runs ſouth weſterly, and enters the Hudſon, in Tappan Bay.

RIVERS IN CONNECTIOUT.

Of the Houſatonuc. This river is formed by two ſtreams, *one from Laneſborough, the other from Windſor, in the county of* Berkſhire in Maſſachuſetts, and

running ſoutherly, penetrates Connecticut, and after a courſe of one hundred miles, diſcharges its waters into the Sound, between Milford and Stratford. It is navigated by ſmall veſſels to Derby, about ten miles from its mouth, above which its channel is ſtony and the ſtream generally rapid.

Of the Connecticut. The Connecticut is a river of conſiderable magnitude, being generally four hundred yards in bredth, and for the plenty and goodneſs of its fiſh, and the quantity of rich meddow fertilized by its waters, is equal to any river in the United States. Its ſources are among the White Hills, and other high lands on the borders of Canada—its courſe is ſoutherly and its length about three hundred miles, to its diſcharge into the Sound, between Saybrook and Lyme. It divides New Hampſhire from Vermont, penetrates the ſtate of Maſſachuſetts in Hampſhire county, and ſeparates Connecticut into almoſt equal parts.

Of the navigation of the Connecticut and its tributary ſtreams. This river admits ſmall veſſels to Hartford, forty five miles from its mouth, and excepting the falls, is boatable almoſt to its ſources. The falls at Walpole, Greenfield and Springfield are made paſſable in boats by locks. This river receives the Tunxis or Farmington river in Windſor—the Agawaum in Weſt Springfield—the Chickopy in Springfield—the Deerfield in the town of the ſame name—Miller's River—White River—Weſt River—Amanooſuc—Paſumſic, and many ſmaller ones.

Of the Mohegan River or Thames. The Mohegan is formed by the confluence of three main branches, the Shetucket, Quinebaug and Norwich rivers. It forms the excellent harbor of New London and is navigable to Norwich fourteen miles from the ſound. The ſtreams above Norwich are not navigable.

RIVERS IN RHODE ISLAND.

Of Providence River. This is a ſmall river which falls into Narraganſet Bay, at the town of Providence. This bay is navigable for large ſhips to Providence thirty miles from the ſea; it contains ſeveral large and

islands, and forms, opposit to Newport, one
: most spacious and safe harbors in the world.
bay receives the two largest rivers in the state of
e Island, the Patucket on the east and the Paw-
on the west.

RIVERS IN MASSACHUSETTS.

the Merrimac. This is a considerable river of
chusetts and New Hampshire, which proceeds
hree or four streams; one called Pemigewasset-
er, Winepiseogee, from the lake of that name-
d from the White hills, and a fourth called Ba-
river.—After the junction of these it proceeds
erly and easterly about ninety miles, and unites
the Atlantic below Newbury Port. It is naviga-
bout twenty miles to Haverhill, and furnishes
that town boatable waters. In this state also
harles, Mistic and Taunton Rivers; and the Con-
:ut flows through the county of Hampshire.

RIVERS IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.

the Pascataqua, or Piscataway. This river springs
: town of Wakefield, in New Hampshire, and
ng south easterly, about forty miles, and dividing
Hampshire from Maine, unites with the Atlantic,
r Portsmouth. About seven miles above Portsh,
it receives the western branch, which is formed
several streams, and here becomes a deep, rapid
never freezing and navigable for large ships. It
is an excellent harbor at Portsmouth. The Mer-
: also has its sources, and the principal part of its
e in New Hampshire.

RIVERS IN MAINE.

the Sauco. This is a considerable river in the
ict of Maine, originating among the White Hills,
winding, in an easterly course, to the Atlantic.
navigable to the fall, about six miles, and above
boatable.

the Androscoggin. This river, called also Ama-
gin, has its sources north of the White Moun-

tains, and in lake Umbagog; it runs in New Hampshire for some distance near the border of the state; then crossing into Maine, winds its course towards the ocean, and unites with the Kennebec, about twenty miles from the sea. The stream formed by this confluence was formerly called Sagadahoc.

Of the Kennebec. This is a large river, arising in the High Ridges of land that form the boundary of the United States. In its course, it receives the Sebasticook on the north, and Sandy river on the south, and falls into the Atlantic, east of Casco bay. It is navigable forty six miles, and boatable above the falls. The main branch passes thro a large lake called Moosehead or Moose Lake.

Of the Penobscot. The Penobscot is the largest river in the District of Maine. It has its sources in the high lands that divide Canada from the United States, and running south easterly falls into the Atlantic. It is navigable forty miles, and boatable above the first fall for seventy miles without interruption. By this river, the Indians formerly made their inroads from Canada upon the early settlements.

Of the Scoodac. This is a considerable river in Maine, which, rising in the hills and passing a lake of the same name, falls into the bay of Passamaquoddy. The north eastern branch of this river, has been determined to be the northern limits of the United States, and the boundary between them and the British Province of New Brunswic.

RIVERS IN VERMONT.

Of the Missisko. The Missisko is the most northerly river in Vermont. It has its source in Belvidere, and running north east, enters Canada; then bending westerly and southerly, crosses the line into Vermont, and enters a bay of the same name, in Champlain, in the township of Highgate. It is about seventy miles *in length.*

Of the Lamoil. The Lamoil is a river of the size of *Missisko.* It proceeds from a pond in Glover, and r[uns]

westerly unites its waters with lake Champlain in ester, five miles north of Onion River.

Onion River. This river has its source fourteen west of Connecticut river in the town of Cabot, unning a north westerly course, discharges its s into Lake Champlain, between Burlington and ester. Its waters are navigable five miles from outh, and boatable much farther between its falls. is river the Indians formerly travelled, when invaded the settlements on the Connecticut.

Otter Creek. This is a boatable stream in Ver- , arising in Bromley, running northerly about miles, and falling into lake Champlain, at Fer- g.

RIVERS IN THE BRITISH PROVINCES.

the St. John's. This is a large river in the Pro- of New Brunswic; three hundred and fifty in length, navigable for coasters sixty miles, and oats two hundred. It has its sources in the ridges h land which divide the waters of the St. Law- from those which fall into the Atlantic, and run- s south easterly course, falls into the bay of Fun- In Canada is the Iroquois which has been de- d.

neral remarks on the Rivers of North America. Of ghty three rivers here described, seventy four are s that water the territories of the United States, early forty of them are rivers of primary magni- and importance to navigation. Most of them their sources in that immense chain of Mountains, , under various names, extend from north east to west thro the whole territory—a distance of at fifteen hundred miles. Those mountains, receiv- e rain and the snow, emboson vast reservoirs of , from which issue innumerable streams to re- and fertilize this vast extent of country.

the freezing of Rivers. All the Rivers in North *ica, which* are northward and eastward of the *n,* are covered with a bridge of ice almost

every winter, nearly to their mouths. The Hudſo the Delaware and Suſquehanna in ordinary winte are *always* frozen above their rapids and near the ſources—*uſually* ſo, for a few weeks, below nav gable water—and are always cloſed to their mouths, winters of uncommon ſeverity. In ſuch winters al the rivers and bays are covered with ice as far ſou as Virginia and ſometimes, tho rarely, in the Carolina In the winter of 1779–80, loaded carriages paſſ Cheſopeek bay on the ice at Annapolis, where it five miles wide.

Of Freſhets, Freſhes or Inundations in Rivers. I reaſon of great rains or the ſudden melting of ſnov rivers are often ſwelled, ſo as to quit their banks an overflow the adjacent low lands. In the mild climat of the ſouthern ſtates, theſe freſhets uſually proce from rains, and may happen at any ſeaſon of the yea But from the Suſquehanna northward and eaſtwar altho exceſſive rains *may* cauſe inundations, yet th diſſolving of the ſnow in the ſpring, is the princip cauſe. When theſe freſhets are great, ſudden and b fore the rivers are clear of ice, they ſometimes occaſio great deſtruction, ſweeping away trees, fences, bridge mills, houſes and every thing on their banks. An ir ſtance happened in March 1784, in the Suſquehann Patomac and James Rivers.

Of the annual Floods in the Connecticut. The inun dations of the Connecticut are annual, and the mo remarkable of any in the eaſtern ſtates. The fir ſwelling of the water is when the ſnow is diſſolved o the Atlantic ſhore and on the low land adjoining th river, which uſually happens about the laſt of Febru ry or beginning of March; and, at this time, the rive is cleared of ice uſually for one hundred miles or mor from its mouth. About a month later, a ſecond and more conſiderable flood is cauſed by the melting o *the ſnow,* on the interior mountains, and about th *head of the* river. This flood, riſing from twelve t *twenty feet,* ſpreads the waters over the flats or me

dows to a great extent—ſurrounding trees and buildings—and exhibiting a ſea of water, among villages and cultivated fields.

Of the utility of Rivers. The uſes of rivers are innumerable—They ſupply freſh water for the neighboring inhabitants—they may be ſpread over fields to nuriſh graſs, rice, indigo, or other valuable plants—they feed numberleſs fiſhes which furniſh man with food or an article of commerce—they ſupply water for mills and forges, and thus ſave an incredible quantity of labor—they conſtitute the boundaries of kingdoms, ſtates, towns and poſſeſſions—they bring down from the hills a fat, ſlimy ſubſtance or particles of rich mold, the remains of trees and plants, which are lodged on mountains beyond the reach of man, and depoſit them on the verdant plains below; and ſo wonderful is the economy of nature, that this proceſs by which the lands of the huſbandman are fertilized, without his own labor, is performed annually in ſpring, juſt before the farmer *wants* the manure on his land, and when no crops can be injured by the inundation.

Of the means by which rivers are ſupplied. As water, next to air, is the moſt neceſſary article for man and beaſt, ſo the beneficent Author of nature has furniſhed it in the utmoſt abundance. That element, in the form of water, fills the earth near its ſurface, where, if it does not iſſue in ſprings, it may be found by digging wells. In the form of water, it ſerves innumerable eſſential uſes; but as the laws of gravitation, which occaſion it to fall and run to the ocean, prevent its return, the Author of nature has endowed that element with a capacity of being rarefied and by the action of heat, raiſed in the form of vapor; which is ſeen in clouds or it incorporates with the air, and becomes inviſible. In this manner, water is buoyed up in the atmoſphere, wafted over the land, and being diſengaged from its heat, and condenſed into clouds, it is again precipitated upon the earth. By this alter-

iſhing mechaniſm, air is converted into water to refreſh the earth, and water is converted into air by evaporation, to be wafted over the earth. Wonderful is the proceſs, and glorious the Author.

CATARACTS.

Of Rapids, and Falls or Cataracts. When rivers flow along a plain and nearly on a level, they move with a gentle and ſilent current. When the bed of a river deſcends conſiderably, its waters flow rapidly, and ſuch places are called *rapids*. If the water falls over a precipice in the channel, the place is called a fall or cataract; and the waters of a large river, falling in a ſheet over a precipice, or tumbling and daſhing and foaming among broken rocks, exhibit one of the moſt grand and entertaining ſpectacles in nature.

Of the principal Cataracts in America. The moſt diſtinguiſhed Cataract in the United States, and perhaps in the world, is, the fall of Niagara, between the lakes Ontario and Erie. The perpendicular deſcent of the water is nearly one hundred and fifty feet, and the bredth of the river more than ſeven hundred yards. The roaring of the water is heard from 20 to 40 miles, according to the weather—the earth near the fall ſeems to tremble; and a miſt conſtantly ariſes from the ſpray of the daſhing waters, which forms a cloud over the place.

Of other Falls. At the fall of St. Anthony's the waters of the Miſſiſippi are precipitated at once about thirty feet. The fall of the Mohawk, called Cohoes, about two miles from its junction with the Hudſon, is a charming ſpectacle; the water rolling over a rock, extended from ſide to ſide, in a ſingle ſheet, and falling about 60 feet. The Paſſaic falls in New Jerſey form an intereſting ſpectacle; the water falling in a ſheet into a chaſm of the rock, about ſeventy feet, finds a paſſage below on one ſide of the opening. At the Cataract in the Houſatonuc, between Saliſbury and *Canaan in* Connecticut, the river tumbles down a

rock about sixty feet, exhibiting a grand and pic-
k scene.

e Fall at Walpole. At Walpole, in New Hamp-
, is a remarkable fall in the Connecticut. The
is there narrowed to the bredth of 22 rods, and
ream divided by a rock into two channels, one
ich, when the river is low, is dry. The whole
is then thrown into the other channel, and des-
s in a passage of sixteen feet wide, with amazing
and velocity, forming a most romantic and inter-
g spectacle.

other falls and rapids. All large rivers have falls
pids, and these in the United States, are too nu-
us to be severally described. Most rivers have
s just above the head of tide water. The rapids
e Hudson are just above Lansingburg and the
uence of the Mohawk—in the Delaware, they
: Trenton—in the Schuylkill, a few miles above
delphia—in the Susquehanna, about twenty miles
its mouth—in the Patomac, just above George-
—in the Rappahannoc, near Fredericksburg, and
e James, at Richmond. As the head branches
large rivers are in mountainous tracts of coun-
here are usually rapids or falls, where the rivers
the hilly country, and descend into plains.

LAKES.

Lakes and Ponds. Lakes and ponds are collec-
of water in valleys or hollow places; some of
are fed mostly by springs which do not appear;
s are fed by rivulets from hills and mountains.
: of them have no outlet; others are the sources
rers and brooks.

the Lakes in the United States. The greatest col-
ms of inland water in the United States, are on
orthern boundary, separating them from the Brit-
ossessions in Canada. The most remote of these
: Lake of the Woods, on the north west frontier
e *United States.* Its length is said to be one

hundred miles and its bredth thirty or forty; but it has not been fully explored.

Of Lake Superior. Superior is one of the largeſt inland bodies of water on the globe, being fifteen hundred miles in circumference, with a rocky and mountainous ſhore. It contains many iſlands, one of which is ſaid to be a hundred miles in length. It is ſupplied with water by many ſtreams and ſome large rivers; and it communicates with Huron by the ſtrait of St. Mary. Its water is clear, deep and cold; abounding with fiſh, eſpecially ſturgeon and trout of a large ſize.

Of the Huron. Lake Huron is ſuppoſed to be one thouſand miles in circumference, but is of a triangular form. As it receives a current of water from Superior, ſo it diſcharges its waters into Erie on the ſouth; it alſo communicates with Lake Miſhigan on the weſt, by the ſtraits of Miſhillimakinac.

Of the Miſhigan. This lake is about two hundred and eighty miles in length, about ſixty in bredth and ſix hundred in circumference. It receives a number of rivers, from ſome of which a communication may be eaſily made to the rivers which fall into Erie, the Wauboſh and Illinois.

Of Erie. Erie is upwards of two hundred miles in length, and about forty in width. It communicates with Huron by a river, called *Detroit*, which ſignifies a *ſtrait*; and by Lake St. Clair. On this river ſtands a fortreſs, called by the ſame name, Detroit. By the ſtreams that fall into this Lake, a communication is very eaſy with thoſe which fall into the Ohio and Miſhigan.

Of Ontario. Ontario is the laſt of the great chain of inland waters which border the United States and Canada. It is about ſix hundred miles in circumference, and communicates on the weſt with Erie by Niagara, and on the eaſt, with the Iroquois or St. Lawrence. All theſe lakes are navigable for large ſhips and abound with a variety of excellent fiſh, among which are trout weighing from ſixty to ninety pounds.

Of Champlain. Champlain is a large lake, being two hundred miles in length and generally five in bredth. It lies in the northern part of the state of New York, dividing it from Vermont, and extending into Canada. On the south, it receives the waters of lake George at Ticonderoga and communicates with South Bay, which receives the waters of Wood Creek. It contains several islands, some of which, as the north and south Hero, are inhabited. Its waters are discharged into the St. Lawrence by the river Sorell.

Of Lake George. To the south west of Champlain lies lake George, about thirty five miles long and from one to seven wide. The waters of this lake are one hundred feet higher than the surface of Champlain, into which they fall. The south end of the George extends within fourteen miles of the Hudson; and here formerly stood Fort George on the lake, and Fort Edward on the Hudson, at the point of communication.

Of South Bay. This is a continuation of Lake Champlain, about thirty miles in length and in some places, one in bredth; at the head it receives Wood Creek in Skeensborough. It communicates with Champlain by a strait of half a mile wide, on the west of which, in the state of New York, stands old Fort Ticonderoga, and on the east in Vermont, Mount Independence, which was fortified by the Americans in 1776.

Of Moosehead, or Moose Lake. This is a considerable lake in the District of Maine and county of Lincoln, from which issues the east branch of Kennebec River. Its shores are irregular, and it has not been fully explored.

Of the Winipiseogee Lake. This is the largest lake in New Hampshire, being twenty two miles long and in some places, eight miles wide. It lies in the western part of the state and gives rise to a river of the same name, which is one of the principal sources of the Merrimac.

Of the Umbagog. This is a considerable body of water lying partly in New Hampshire and partly in Maine. It is very irregular in its form, but its dimensions are not known.

Of Memfremagog. This lake lies on the borders of Vermont and Canada, chiefly in Canada. It is about forty miles in length and two or three in bredth. Its waters communicate with the St. Lawrence by the river St. Francis.

Of New Streams. In the year 1775, the river Sauco was suddenly swelled, without great rain, in a manner to surprize the inhabitants. It was afterwards discovered that a body of water had burst out of the side of the White Mountain, and poured itself into that river. The stream still continues to flow from the same source, and has considerably augmented the river Sauco.

Of new Channels in Rivers. In many places, there is sufficient evidence that large rivers have changed their channels—the old channels exhibiting all the marks of the flowing of waters in some former period—as stones and rocks worn smooth. The Connecticut winds thro a meddow or flat, which has all been formed by the current, and it still changes its channel, gradually wearing off the land on one side and depositing it on the other. In March 1784, a sudden thaw broke up the ice when thick and strong, and an immense body lodging on the flats above Hartford, dammed up the channel—immediately the water rose, rushed over its eastern bank, and began to wear a new channel near a mile from the present. But the ice suddenly gave way, and the river resumed its old channel.

Islands.

Of Islands. Those portions of the earth which are comparatively small, and surrounded by water, are *called islands.* Some of these are probably the *summits of hills* or mountains, whose bases are on the *bottom of* the ocean. Some of them appear to be a

old as the earth—others have been formed by the force of currents of water in the sea or at the mouths of rivers, or in their channels—and some have been thrown up by the action of subterranean fire.

Islands on the American Coast.

Of Long Island. Long Island is situated near the shore of the main land, beginning near New York, and ending nearly opposit to the line between Connecticut and Rhode Island. Its length from east to west is about 130 miles, and its general bredth about ten. It is separated from the main land by a strait called the Sound, which is from eighteen miles to half a mile wide; and on the west, is separated from Staten Island, by the main channel of the Hudson, with the waters of the east River. It contains three counties and is a part of the State of New York.

Of Staten Island. This lies west of Long Island, embosomed in a bay, nine miles south west of New York. It is about eighteen miles in length by six in bredth, and forms the county of Richmond. Its inhabitants are nearly four thousand, and it belongs to the state of New York.

Of Fisher's and Plumb Islands. Fisher's island lies in the sound, opposit to Groton and Stonington, in Connecticut. It is eight miles in length, and two in bredth, and contains a few good farms. It belongs to the State of New York, and is annexed to the county of Suffolk on Long Island. Between this island and a small uninhabited island called Gull island, is a very rapid tide, and a surprising rippling of the water called the Race. Off the mouth of the Connecticut, is Plumb island, inhabited by five or six families.

Of Block and Gardiner's Islands. Block island lies southward of the harbor of Newport, about twenty miles. It is about twelve miles in length, four in bredth, belongs to the state of Rhode island, and constitutes a township by the name of New Shoreham. It *is fertile, abounding* with cattle, and remarkable for *its excellent cheese.* Its inhabitants are nearly se-

hundred. Gardiner's Island lies near Montauk point on Long Island—it contains about three thousand acres of land, affording good pasturage.

Of Rhode Island. This island lies in Narraganset bay; is about fourteen miles in length and two in bredth. Its soil is very luxuriant, and well cultivated; but it was robbed of its wood by the British troops in the revolution war. On the south west end stands Newport, one of the largest towns in the state, opposit to which is Goat Island, about a mile from the town, on which is a fort.

Of Conanicut. This is an island in the Narraganset Bay, west of Newport, six or seven miles in length from north to south, but narrow. Its soil is luxuriant and well cultivated. On the south point of this island stands the Light House, and the channel on each side of the island is navigable for large ships. To the northward, in the same bay, lies Prudence and a few smaller islands.

Of the Elizabeth Islands. These islands form a chain extending from north east to south west, along the southern shore of Massachusetts, from Buzzard's Bay, opposit to New Bedford. They are numerous, but the chief are Nashawn, Pasqui, Nashawenna, Pinnequese and Cuttahunk. They have mostly a rich soil and are cultivated. On Cuttahunk, the south western island of this chain, Capt. Gosnold landed and fixed a habitation with a view to make a settlement in the year 1602, but his people grew uneasy, and all returned.

Of Martha's Vinyard. This is an island belonging to Massachusetts, of about twenty miles in length by six in width, situated about eight or nine miles, southerly of the Elizabeth Islands, and westward of Nantucket. The soil is good and the inhabitants nearly four thousand. Here is a safe harbor, and very useful in winter, when ships bound to Boston cannot venture round the shoals of Nantucket and Cape Cod. The western end of this island is a precipice called Gay

, [Gosnold called it Dover cliff,] very high and , and of a reddish color.

Nantucket. This island lies eastward of Mar- Vinyard, and southward of Cape Cod, at the dis- of twenty five miles. It is about fifteen miles and from three to ten wide, and contains good ; but a principal occupation of the people is the e fishery. Its inhabitants are nearly five thousand, y quakers. It is a county and belongs to Mas- setts.

other Islands. There are many islands belonging e United States which are too small to require a cular description. Boston Bay is crowded with islands, some of them inhabited, and many of cultivated. On one of them stands Fort Inde- nce, a strong fortress, commanding the entrance the harbor. The coast of Maine is lined with islands ; and so is the shore of the Carolinas and gia. Some of the islands on the southern coast an excellent soil, and furnish the best crops of cot- They were covered with live oak, the best of imber, but this is rapidly disappearing before the of the cultivator.

the uses of Islands. In addition to the value of s, as land for cultivation, they have an important regard to navigation. Islands form a bulwark ft the violence of the billows which are incessant- ling from the ocean ; protecting the mouths of and the entrance of harbors. Were it not for ls, the shores of bays and rivers at their entrance; l be almost incessantly beat with the swelling sur- which would prevent or render dangerous, the nce of ships. This is one of ten thousand eviden- f the wisdom and kindness of a beneficent Crea- n the structure of the earth.

New or Volcanic Islands. The ancients had a ion that the two celebrated islands of Greece, and *Rhodes*, emerged from the sea, and several

ſmaller iſlands. But it is well authenticated that the iſlands Thera, and Therasia aroſe from the ſea, by means of ſubterranean fire, about two hundred and thirty ſeven years before Chriſt. One of theſe iſlands, now called Santorin, is thirty five miles in circumference and inhabited. About one hundred and thirty years after, aroſe Hiera; and about the twenty firſt year of the Chriſtian Era, aroſe another iſland called Thia. In the year after Chriſt 725, aroſe another iſland near Thera, attended with ſmoke, and a denſe ſubſtance that hardened into a kind of pumice ſtone.

Of Iſlands thrown up in modern times. In May 1707, happened an earthquake at Santorin, and two days after, appeared a new iſland not far diſtant, attended with a noxious vapor, and a diſmal noiſe that laſted for two months. In October 1720 a fire aroſe out of the ſea near Tercera, one of the Azores, and with it an iſland which was covered with fire and ſmoke; cinders were thrown to a diſtance, and a noiſe reſembling thunder accompanied this event.

Of new Iſlands near Iceland. In 1784, after the greateſt volcanic diſcharges in Iceland, that are recorded, two iſlands appeared, one of them a hundred miles ſouth weſt of Iceland, in a place where the ſea was ſix hundred feet deep. This threw out fire, ſand, pumice ſtones and other volcanic matter, for ſome time; but this and the other afterwards ſunk and diſappeared.

Of Lands made by Rivers and Currents. A ſtrong current in the ocean will ſometimes throw up the ſand on its ſides, or by means of eddies, form ſhoals and points of land. In this manner Cape Hatteras, Cape Fear and Cape Cod ſeem to have been produced by the force of the Gulf ſtream, which creates powerful eddies and counter currents. Rivers alſo form bars, ſhoals and iſlands by ſand and other ſubſtances thrown into the ſea by their currents. Thus the Nile in Egypt *is ſuppoſed* to have formed the lands called the Delta; *and the* Miſſiſippi has by the force of its current, ac-

ally made two hundred miles of flat land in the gulf of Mexico.

Of additions to Valleys and Plains. The currents of rivers, small streams and torrents caused by rain, are constantly wearing upon the hills and driving the earth and sand into the valleys below. Thus the flat lands in the Carolinas appear to be formed or enlarged by matter brought down from the hills, or thrown up by the resisting waters of the ocean. Thus, in the Meddows adjoining our rivers and lakes, logs, leaves and other vegetables, and sometimes frogs are dug up, from a depth of ten, or twenty feet. At Burlington, in Vermont, in 1788, many frogs in a torpid state were dug from the earth, twenty five feet below the surface. There they must have been covered by the earth deposited by Onion river, and there they must have lain for ages, perhaps centuries. Being exposed to the air, they soon recovered life and motion; but not being able to endure the heat of the sun, they perished.

Gulfs, Bays, &c.

Of the chief Gulfs and Bays in North America. Two vast bays or inland seas terminate, on the north, the known territory of North America. The first takes the name of Hudson's Bay, from the discoverer. This lies on the north of Canada and Labrador, and communicates with the Atlantic by Hudson's Strait. It is from two to three hundred leagues in length, and is occupied by the British nation, to whom it is valuable only by means of the fur trade and fishery which are enjoyed exclusively by a company. This bay was discovered in 1610.

Of Baffin's Bay. North of Hudson's Bay is another called Baffin's Bay, from the navigator who discovered it in 1662. This is an immense body of water, communicating with the Atlantic by Baffin's and Davis's Straits. It extends from the 70th degree of north *latitude nearly* to the 80th, in a region so cold, *that it is navigable* only for a few weeks in summer,

and is seldom or never free from vast bodies of fl ice.

Of the Gulf of the Iroquois. The river Iroqu St. Lawrence opens into a bay ninety miles wi its junction with the waters of the Atlantic. In of it is the large island of Newfoundland, almo hundred miles in length, and within it, are St. J Anticosti and others. On the north, between foundland and Labrador, is the strait of Belisle, twenty miles wide; and on the south a still channel by which this gulf communicates wit Atlantic.

Of the Bay of Fundy. This is a considerable a the sea, extending north east from the north lin the United States, about two hundred miles, int territory of Nova Scotia. At its entrance fro sea, it is twelve leagues wide, but narrows as i ceeds into the land. It is remarkable for its which by means of the compression of its wate tween the adjacent shores, are swelled to forty even sixty feet. So rapidly is the flood tide p into the gulf, that small animals, feeding on the are sometimes overtaken and drowned.

Of smaller Bays. Between Fundy and the ware, are many small bays, which form excellent bors—among which are Passamaquoddy Bay, a mouth of the river Scooduc—Penobscot Bay, a mouth of the river of that name—Casco Bay, o south of the entrance into the Kennebec—Boston between Cape Ann and Cape Cod—Barnstable Ba the north, and Buzzard's Bay on the south of Cod—and Narraganset's Bay in Rhode Island.

Of the Delaware. The Delaware is a large communicating with the Atlantic between Cape on the north and Henlopen on the south. It ex about sixty miles within the land, and receives t *ware River*, at Bombay Hook.

Of the Chesopeek. This bay communicates wit ocean between Cape Charles on the north and He

the south. It stretches into the land two hundred and sixty miles, with a bredth of about six leagues; dividing Virginia and a part of Maryland—that part between the bay and the sea being called the Eastern Shore. It terminates on the north at Elkton in Maryland—receiving some of the largest rivers in America, and furnishing a vast inland navigation, thro a fertile and populous country.

Of remarkable Capes and Points. On the coast of the Carolinas, are Cape Fear and Cape Hatteras, which extend far into the ocean, and projecting still farther dangerous shoals. Cape Cod on the shore of Massachusetts is equally remarkable. It extends into the ocean in form of an elbow, about sixty five miles, and the peninsula is from three to nine miles broad. Beyond the Cape lie very extensive shoals.

Of Peninsulas. The strip of land between the Chesopeek and the ocean, is a remarkable peninsula, two hundred and fifty miles long, and almost uniformly level. Cape Cod forms another remarkable peninsula. The town of Boston stands on a peninsula. The south eastern part of Nova Scotia is an extensive peninsula, formed by the bay of Fundy. On this stands Halifax, a considerable town, on a fine harbor and the capital of the Province. The southern point of this land is called Cape Sable.

Of Swamps and Morasses. When water cannot find a passage to the ocean, or when a level plain adjoins the sea and rivers, the water forms a swamp, marsh, or moras. In such situations the water stagnates, loses its purity, and becomes impregnated with putrescent substances, as wood and plants, which generate innumerable insects, and emit exhalations noxious to the neighboring inhabitants. The principal morasses in the United States, are on the borders of the sea or the rivers to the southward of the Hudson. The most considerable swamps are those called *Dismal*, in Virginia and *North* Carolina, one of which is thirty miles

in length, by ten in bredth, and covered with trees, reeds, briars, and various kinds of ſhrubs. The Waquaſanoka, a ſwamp in Georgia, is three hundred miles in length.

Of the Gulf Stream. A remarkable current in the Atlantic, running from ſouth weſt to north eaſt, along the American coaſt from Florida to Newfoundland, is called the Gulf Stream. The name is derived from an opinion that this current is occaſioned by the waters of the Gulf of Mexico, which are accumulated there by the force of the trade winds, and which find a paſſage from the gulf between the American ſhore and the Bahama iſlands. It is more probable that a concurring, if not a chief cauſe, is the general current of the Atlantic which ſets to the ſouthward, and meeting with the continent of South America, a part of the waters are repelled and forced into a counter current, along the ſhore thro the gulf.

Of the properties of this Current. This current moves at the rate of two or three miles an hour. It is diſtant from the American ſhore from 70 to 150 miles, according as the ſhore projects in capes or retires in bays. It proceeds to the bank of Newfoundland, where it turns to the eaſt and appears to be loſt in the general current of the Atlantic, which ſets to the ſouthward waſhing the weſtern iſles and the African ſhore. Its waters, coming from a tropical climate, are warmer than the waters on ſoundings along the American ſhore. It is alſo unfathomable, and deep water, in the ocean, is warmer than water on banks and ſhoals.

SECTION IV.

ORIGIN OF MAN, AND OF THE AMERICANS.

Of the first peopling of the earth.

THE first information we have respecting the peopling of this globe, is given in the Holy Scriptures. From them it appears, that the first inhabitants were planted in the fertile and pleasant countries near the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, in Mesopotamia and Babylonia. From them sprung the various nations, in Asia, Europe, Africa and America.

Of the progress of science and civilization. Those countries which were first peopled and whose mild climate and fertile soil, invited the fixed residence of men, were first enlightened with the beams of science. Among these were Assyria and Egypt. In Assyria we first hear of the Hebrew tongue, the parent of those languages which afterwards were spread over Egypt, Greece and Italy, and the first language of which we have any knowledge. From Assyria to Egypt and from Egypt to Greece, and thence to Rome, letters were propagated, and the rude inhabitants were instructed in the arts and sciences.

Of the Peopling of America. It is evident that many centuries after the old continent was well inhabited, and highly civilized, the American Continent remained the residence of wild beasts only. By what means men found their way to this continent, is not quite certain; but there is good reason to believe, they passed from the northern parts of Tartary, to the north western coast of America, not long after, and perhaps before the Christian Era. The Mexican traditions and historical paintings all deduce the origin of the Mexican nations from the north west.

Of the progress of settlements by the natives. It is very probable from the Mexican history, that the natives of America, migrated in hords, clans or tribes; moving, *like the Tartars*, with their families and substance.

Theſe tribes probably ranged firſt along the weſtern ſhore of North America, following each other in ſucceſſion, like waves following waves, as they were invited to the ſouth, by the mildneſs of the climate, or were driven by other tribes in their rear; until they ſeated themſelves in the warm and fertile vales of Mexico. That country as well as Peru had become very populous when firſt viſited by Europeans.

Of the ſettlements on the Atlantic. It is probable that when the warmer regions of America had become populous, the Indians began to ſpread themſelves over the eaſtern parts of the continent, following the courſe of rivers, and the ſhore of the Atlantic. In this progreſs, they would firſt find the rivers that fall into the Miſſiſippi, and purſuing them, would find and plant the rich intervals on theſe rivers. Then continuing their courſe, they would be led along the Alabama, the Tenneſee, the Ohio and the Wauboſh, to their ſources and croſſing the mountains and the lakes, would purſue the ſtreams that fall into the Atlantic. And hence perhaps the tradition among the Indians of the United States, that their anceſtors came from the ſouth weſt, and that the great Spirit reſides in that quarter.

Of the time when America was firſt peopled. The Toltecas, the moſt ancient tribe in Mexico, date their eſtabliſhment in that country, as far back as the ſeventh century of our era. This nation was nearly deſtroyed by a famin and mortal peſtilence about the year one thouſand and thirty one. Other tribes ſucceeded this, and in the twelfth century, the Mexican tribe, which lived on the north of the Gulf of California, migrated, and after various removals, fixed their abode in the country, which bears their name, about the year thirteen hundred and twenty five. This was about two hundred years before the Spaniards diſcovered and conquered the country.

Of the Reſemblance among the Indian tribes. All the tribes of the primitive inhabitants of America, appear

to reſemble each other, in all eſſential parts of their character, except the Eſquimaux, in Labrador. The people of Mexico and Peru, when firſt diſcovered, had made conſiderable advances towards an enlightened ſtate, beyond the other nations. This was owing to a crouded population, which compelled them to cultivate the earth and attend to the arts for ſubſiſtence. But in the northern parts of this continent the Indians lived in a wild, ſavage ſtate.

Of the Climate of Mexico. Mexico, the capital city of the country, is in the nineteenth degree of north latitude, and of courſe in a warm climate. The valleys and plains of the country are hot, but the mountains are ſo high as to have a temperate air, and ſome of them at times, are clothed with ſnow.

Of the City of Mexico. Mexico was founded in the year 1325, on a ſmall iſland in the midſt of the Lake Tezeuco. It was ſurrounded by water, but communicated with the land, by three croſſways, raiſed with earth and ſtone, wide enough for ten horſemen to ride abreaſt; beſides two, which were narrower and ſupported aqueducts to convey water to the city. When taken by the Spaniards, it was ten miles in circumference, and contained ſixty thouſand houſes.

Of the Buildings of the Mexicans. The Mexicans did not know the uſe of iron, but they had axes of copper, and were acquainted with the uſe of lime. Their public buildings were of great ſize, with walls of ſtone laid in lime, and ſome of them poliſhed to an uncommon degree. They built bridges alſo with ſtone arches.

Of the Religion of the Mexicans. The Mexicans had an imperfect idea of a Supreme Being, and believing him to be inviſible, they never repreſented him by ſenſible objects. They believed alſo, like the Greeks and Romans, in a number of inferior deities, who preſided over the air, fire, earth, water, mountains and the like; and they believed alſo in an evil ſpirit, or *god of darkneſs.* They deified the ſun and moon,

and believed in the doctrine of tranſmigration; that is, that the ſouls of men after death paſs into other animals, as cattle, birds, fiſhes and the like.

Of the Worſhip of the Mexicans. Altho the Mexicans did not repreſent the Supreme God by any ſenſible objects, yet they had images of their inferior deities, made of ſtone, wood, and ſome of them of gold or other metals. Theſe were worſhipped with prayers, faſting and other auſterities, kneeling and proſtrations, with many rites and ceremonies. To theſe idols alſo they ſacrificed human victims, ſelected from their ſlaves or priſoners of war, in ſuch numbers and with ſuch barbarity that the accounts of them cannot be read without horror and aſtoniſhment. Such is the ſtate of nations, who do not enjoy the advantages of civilization and the Chriſtian religion.

Of the traditions reſpecting the Deluge, &c. The Mexicans had diſtinct traditions among them of the creation of the world, the univerſal deluge, the confuſion of languages, and the diſperſion of mankind; and theſe events they had repreſented in their paintings. They believed that all mankind had been overwhelmed with an inundation, except one man and one woman, who were ſaved in a ſmall boat and landed on a mountain. But theſe traditions were mingled with many fables.

Of the Prieſts. The idolatry of the Mexican nations was remarkable for the number of prieſts, conſecrated to the reſpective gods. It was their buſineſs to perform the ſacrifices, compoſe hymns, take care of the temples and ornaments of the altars, keep the kalendar, preſerve the paintings, direct the feſtivals, inſtruct the youth, and offer incenſe. The prieſts never ſhaved their faces, but painted their bodies, bathed every evening, faſted often, and obſerved great temperance and auſterities. The Mexicans all practiced ſevere cruelties on their own bodies, ſuch as piercing *and mangling* the fleſh, abſurdly imagining that ſuch *mortifications* would pleaſe their deities.

Of the Mexican Year. The year among the Mexicans consisted of three hundred and sixty five days. These days were distributed into eighteen months of twenty days each, and the five additional days were called, *useless*; and employed in receiving and returning visits. The year began on the 26th day of February; but every fourth year it began one day earlier. The century or long period consisted of fifty two years, which was divided into four periods of thirteen years each; and the year, every fourth year, beginning one day earlier, thirteen of these anticipated days carried back the beginning of the year, at the close of the century, to the fourteenth of February. Then the new century again began on the 26th.

Ceremonies at the Birth of a child. When a child was born, it was immediately bathed in water, and the gods were implored to be propitious to the infant—On this occasion the parents received the congratulations of their friends. The diviners were also consulted as to the future good or ill fortune of the child; for the Mexicans, like other ignorant people, were believers in lucky and unlucky days and signs. On the fifth day, after the birth, the child was bathed a second time, when the friends were invited and if the parents were rich, great entertainments were made, and suits of apparel given to the guests. On this occasion, if the child was a male, a bow and arrows, or some instrument or habit which the child would use, when grown up, were prepared; and if a female, a spindle, or some dress suitable for one of her condition.

Of the Marriage Ceremonies. Marriage agreements among the Mexicans, were made by the parents, after consulting the oracles or diviners, who pronounced on the omens of good or ill. The damsel was solicited by women chosen for that purpose, who went to the house at midnight. In all cases, the parents of the young woman refused to grant the *first* request. At the second *request*, the parents deliberated with the *relations, and afterwards* sent an answer. At the day

appointed for the nuptials, the parents conducted the bride to the house of her father in law, where a priest tied a corner of her gown to the mantle of the bridegroom—she then walked round a fire, and both bride and bridegroom offered copal to the gods by way of incense, and exchanged presents with each other. At supper, they gave mouthfuls to each other alternately, and the ceremony was concluded by the attendants with dancing.

Of the Funeral Rites. In burying the dead, the Mexicans practiced many superstitious ceremonies, among which was the dressing of the body with pieces of paper and then with a habit suitable to the rank of the deceased, and his occupation in life. They gave to the dead also a jug of water to serve him on the journey, and killed a small animal like a dog, and tying a string about its neck, buried it with the deceased, as a companion on his way; or if the dead body was burned, the animal was burnt also and his ashes collected and buried in an earthern pot, and eighty days after, they made over it oblations of bread and wine.—When a prince died, his body was clothed with cotton garments richly ornamented with gold, silver and gems; and his slave and attendants were killed, to serve him in their respective offices in the other world.

Of the Education of Youth. The Mexicans, notwithstanding their many superstitious and barbarous customs, exhibited, in their manner of educating youth, an example worthy of imitation. All mothers, if able, nursed their own children—and if a stranger was taken as a nurse, none was accepted unless of sound health. Children were accustomed to endure hardships, heat and cold. They were early taught to attend the temples and worship the gods, imploring their aid and protection—to abhor vice and to be modest and respectful to aged people. The boys were instructed in the use of arms or utensils of some art; the girls were taught to spin and weave—and all were directed to bathe often and observe great cleanliness.

the Punishment of the Vices of Youth. Great reswas paid to truth among the Mexicans; and ver a child was detected in a lie, they pricked with the thorn of the aloe. They tied the feet s that were too fond of walking abroad. A disnt or quarrelsome boy was beat with nettles. er punishment was to make the offender receive s nostrils the smoke of the chilli, a kind of pepper.

the Government of the Mexican Empire. The ans were governed by a monarch, but he was ı by four Electors appointed for that purpose, among the noble families, and distinguished ir prudence and probity. As soon as they had a choice, their electoral power expired, and a ppointment was made forthwith, either of the or of other persons. If a vacancy happened ; the electors, before the death of the king, his was immediately supplied by a new appointment. ıws of the empire obliged the electors to chuse from among the brothers, nephews or cousins deceased king.

the Classes of People. The Mexicans were di- into nobles, priests and common people. Of the y there were different ranks, each of which had n proper privileges and badge. The nobles wore ents of gold and gems on their garments, and to belonged exclusively the right of enjoying the offices at court. To entitle a man to the first f nobility, he must possess great wealth, and iven unquestionable proof of his bravery in battle. ıs also compelled to undergo without complaint, ;, abstinence, and reproaches. A principal badge ɜ dignity was, an ornament of gold suspended he cartilage of the nose.

Landed Property. Lands in Mexico were divitween the crown, the nobles, the cities or comies, and the temples. The crown lands were ɣ certain noblemen, who made an acknowlege-

ment for them to the king, by presenting him with birds, or nosegays of flowers, when they paid him a visit; and they were also obliged to repair the royal palace, if necessary; to aid and direct in cultivating his garden, and to attend him, when he appeared in public. These lands descended to the eldest son of the noble, but could not be alienated.

Of the Lands of the Nobles and Communities. The lands which the nobles owned were transmitted from father to son; some of these could be sold, but not to plebeans or common people.

The property of the cities or villages was divided among them according to their number, and each district held its share, independent of the others. These lands could not be alienated.

Of the Public Revenues. All the conquered provinces of Mexico paid tribute in fruits, animals and the metals of the country, according to a certain rate—merchants paid their portion in goods, and artizans in the productions of their labors. In the capital of each province, was a magazene for the corn, and other articles paid as tribute. One province was taxed with the payment of four thousand handfuls of beautiful feathers—another, paid twenty bags of cochineal—a third, a certain quantity of coco, cotton garments, or tiger skins—a fourth, a certain number of plates of gold, necklaces, earrings or emeralds—and a fifth, a number of cups of honey, or basons of yellow ocher, axes, mats and the like.

Of Courts of Justice. In most of the large cities and provinces, justice was administered among the Mexicans, by a supreme magistrate, from whose sentence, whether in civil or criminal cases, there was no appeal. The officer appointed the subordinate judges, and the receivers of revenue, within his district, and any one who usurped his authority or made use of his ensigns, was punished with death. In one kingdom, the judges were rendered independent, by estates assigned to their office, and passing to their successors, not to their heirs.

The Mexicans had no lawyers or professional advocates; every suitor and criminal producing his witnesses and making his own allegations.

Of the Laws and Punishments. The Mexicans were governed by fixed laws, which were rigorously enforced. Treason was punished by tearing the traitor in pieces; those who were privy to it, and did not disclose it, were deprived of their liberty. To maltreat an ambassador, minister or public messenger was death. The same punishment was inflicted on those who excited sedition; on those who removed or changed boundaries of lands, established by authority; on judges who gave sentence contrary to law, or took bribes; on those who altered measures ordained by law; on those who disobeyed military orders; on murderers, and those guilty of incest, adultery and unnatural crimes. Guardians who embezzled the estate of their wards, were hanged without mercy; and so were sons who squandered their patrimony in vices.

Of other Crimes. It was a capital crime for one sex to dress in the garments of the other—and to rob in the market. The thief of an article of little value, was punished only by being compelled to restore it; if a person stole things of value, he was made the slave of the person injured. If the thief could not make compensation, or the thing stolen did not exist, he was stoned to death. To steal maiz was a crime, but a poor traveller was permitted to take of maiz or fruits near the highway, as much as would satisfy present hunger. Drunkenness in youth was a capital offense; in older persons, was punished with severity—a nobleman being stripped of his rank and office, and a plebean being shaved and having his house demolished. One who told a lie to the injury of another, lost a part of his lip or his ears.

Of War. No profession among the Mexicans was held more honorable than that of arms. No person could be crowned king, until he had given full proof of his courage, and had taken with his own hands, th

victims to be sacrificed at his coronation. Those who died in the service of their country, were supposed to be the happiest in another life. Great pains was taken to inure children to labor, hardships and danger; and to inspire them with high notions of military honor. To reward the services of warriors, the Mexicans devised three military orders—that of Princes, of Eagles and of Tigers, which were distinguished by particular badges, or armor.

Of Military Dress. When the Mexicans went to battle, they wore only a coarse white habit; and no person was entitled to change this plain dress for one more costly, without having given proofs of bravery. The king, besides his armor, wore on his legs a kind of half boots, made of thin plates of gold; on his arms plates of the same, and bracelets of gems; at his under lip hung an emerald set in gold; at his ears, he wore earrings of the same stone; about his neck a necklace or chain of gold; and a plume of beautiful fethers on his head; together with a splendid badge consisting of a wreath of fethers, reaching from his head down his back. The common soldiers wore only a girdle round the waist, but painted their bodies.

Of the Defensive Arms of the Mexicans. The defensive armor of the Mexicans consisted in shields made in different forms and of various materials. Some were wholly round; others, on one side only. Some were made of solid elastic canes, interwove with cotton threds, and covered with fethers. The shields of the nobles, were made of thin plates of gold, or tortoise shells, adorned with gold, silver or copper. Some were made so as to be folded and carried under the arms, like an umbrella. The officers had breastplates of cotton very thick and proof against arrows. They also covered the chest, the thighs and half of the arms, and wore a case over the head, in shape of the head of a tiger or serpent, which gave them a frightful appearance.

Of the Offensive Arms. The weapons of war among the Mexicans were arrows, slings, clubs, spears, pikes,

swords and darts. Their bows were made of a strong elastic wood, and the string of the sinews of animals or the hair of the stag. Their arrows were pointed with a sharp bone, or piece of flint. They never used poisoned arrows. Their sword was a stout stick, three feet and a half long, and four inches broad, armed with a sort of sharp knife of stone, firmly fastened to it with gum lack. With this, a horse might be beheaded at a single stroke. Their pikes, some of which were eighteen feet long, were pointed with flint or copper. The dart was a small lance of wood hardened in the fire or shod with copper. To this was tied a string, for pulling it back after it was thrown.

Of the Manner of making War. It was a laudable custom with the Mexicans, before a declaration of war, to send Embassadors to the enemy, for the purpose of dissuading from hostilities. By representing and enforcing, in powerful language, the miseries of war, they sometimes effected a reconciliation and preserved peace. In battle, it was less their desire to kill their enemies, than to take them prisoners, for the purpose of sacrifise. Each nation had its ensign—that of Mexico was an eagle darting upon a tiger; that of Tlascala, an eagle with its wings spread.—Their martial music consisted of drums, horns and sea shells. For fortifications, they used palisades, ditches, walls and ramparts of earth or stone.

Of Agriculture and Gardening. The principal article cultivated for food by the Mexicans, was maiz, or indian corn; an invaluable grain first found in America. They had neither plows, oxen nor horses to prepare the ground for planting; but a hoe, made of copper. They planted maiz in the manner now practiced in our country. They made great use of rivulets for watering their lands, conducting the water by canals from the hills. They cultivated gardens to great perfection, and from them supplied Mexico with great abundance of plants, fruits and flowers. By means of twisted willows and roots, they made a sub-

stratum which, being covered with earth, constituted floating gardens on the lakes, which were a great curiosity.

Of the Mexican Money. The Mexicans used the following articles as money—a species of coco, a piece of which represented a certain *number*; or if a large sum was used, it passed in sacks, each being of a certain value—small pieces of cotton—gold dust in goose quills—pieces of copper in the form of a T—and thin pieces of tin—all which had their particular value and use.

Of the Mexican Language. The Mexicans had no knowledge of letters; and their language contained the sounds of twenty of our letters only; but it was copious and very expressive. Almost all words had the accent on the last syllable except one. In the place of letters and words, the Mexicans used, for recording events, paintings, which by means of perfect system and regularity of figures and positions, represented facts with great certainty. These historical paintings were preserved with great care by the Mexicans, and such of them as escaped destruction, at the time of the conquest by the Spaniards, are the sources from which the history of that country is derived—But the Spaniards, ignorant of their use, and at first supposing them to be applied to idolatrous purposes, destroyed, with frantic zeal, all they could find.

Of Cloth and Paper. The materials used by the Mexicans for painting, were cloth made of the threds of the aloe, or the palm, dressed skins and paper. The paper was made of the leaves of a species of the aloe, steeped together like hemp or flax, then washed, stretched and smoothed. It was as thick as pasteboard, but softer, smoother and easy to receive impressions. In general the sheets were long and rolled up for preservation, like the parchments of the ancients in Europe and Asia. The colors used in painting were obtained from plants and flowers, and were exquisitely beautiful.

Of Sculpture and casting of Metals. Altho the Mexicans had not the use of iron or steel, yet by means of

flint stone, they carved images in stone and wood, with great exactness. The images of their gods were numberless. But the casting of precious metals into curious figures, was an art in which the Mexicans excelled most nations which were more advanced in civilization. The founders made the figure of a fish, with the scales alternately one of gold and the other of silver—a parrot with a movable head, tongue and wings —an ape with a movable head and feet, with a spindle in its paw, in the act of spinning—and so exquisite was the work of some of these figures, that the Spaniards, fond as they were of the gold, valued the workmanship more than the metal.

Of the Mexican Theater. The stage among the Mexicans was a square terrace raised and uncovered; or the lower area of some temple. Here actors displayed their comic powers in representing various characters and scenes in life. Some feigned themselves deaf, sick, lame, blind or crippled, and addressed an idol for the return of health. Some mimicked animals, or appeared under their names, disguised in the form of toads, beetles or lizards. These coarse representations were the dramatic amusements of the Mexicans, which concluded with a grand dance of the spectators.

Of Manufactures. The Mexicans had no wool, silk, hemp or flax; but cotton, fethers, hair, mountain palm and aloes, supplied their place. Of fethers, interwove with cotton, were formed mantles, gowns, carpets and bed curtains. Waistcoats for the nobles and other garments were made of cotton interwove with the finest hair from the belly of the rabbit. The leaves of the maguay furnished a fine thred, equal to that of flax; and the palm supplied that which was coarser. These were prepared for use, nearly in the manner we prepare flax and hemp. Of these plants also were made mats, ropes, shoes, and many other articles of common use.

Of the Food. The principal plant cultivated for food was *maiz*; but coco, chia and beans were al

uſed. Bread was made of maiz in this manner—The grain was firſt boiled with a little lime; when ſoft, it was rubbed between the hands, which took off the ſkin —then pounded into a paſte and baked in a pan. The nobles mixed ſome fragant herbs with their bread to give it a flavor. Cookery was the buſineſs of the women. The Mexicans not having cattle or ſheep, reared and uſed vaſt numbers of fowls, and ſmall animals; as turkies, quails, geeſe, ducks, deer, rabbits and fiſh. Their drinks were beverages made by fermentation from the juice of the maguay, or aloe, the palm, the ſtem of maiz and the like.

Of the Dreſs and Ornaments. In the climate of Mexico, very little clothing was neceſſary. The poor wore a girdle; and the higher claſſes, a girdle, and a mantle or cloke over the ſhoulders, about four feet long—and in winter a waiſtcoat. The ſhoo was a ſole of lether or coarſe cloth, under the foot tied with ſtrings round the ancle. The Mexicans wore their hair long, thinking it diſhonorable to be ſhaved. For ornaments they wore earrings, pendants at the underlip, or the noſe; bracelets on the arms, and rings like a collar on the legs. The rich uſed pearls, emeralds and other gems ſet in gold; and the poor uſed ſhells, cryſtals or ſome ſhining ſtones.

Of the Furniture of the Houſes. The beds of the Mexicans did not accord with the finery of their dreſs. Their beds were two coarſe mats of ruſhes, to which the rich added fine palm mats and ſheets of cotton. The cover of the bed was a mantle, or a counterpane of cotton and fethers. The table was a mat ſpread on the ground; and napkins were uſed, as were plates, porringers, earthern pots and jugs, but no knives nor forks. For chairs, were uſed low ſeats of wood and ruſhes or palm, and reeds. The ſhell of a fruit like a gourd furniſhed cups. The Mexicans uſed no wax, tallow or oil for lights, but torches of wood, like pine knots. Tobacco was much uſed for ſmoking and in ſnuff. Inſted of ſoap, were uſed the fruit and root of a particular tree.

Such was the ſtate of ſociety in Mexico, when the Spaniards invaded and conquered the country in the year 1521.

Of other Indian Nations in North America. The tribes of natives which were ſpread over the more northern regions of America, were far leſs advanced in knowledge, arts and civility, than the Mexicans. They all cultivated maiz and beans, which conſtituted no ſmall part of their food. Corn and beans boiled together when green, they called *ſuckotaſh*; a diſh held in great eſteem by their conquerors, and much uſed by us at this day. But the cultivation of the earth was wholly performed by the women. The men were occupied in war, or in hunting or fiſhing, which ſupplied them with the fleſh of deer, bears, beavers, mooſe, raccoon and the like. They had no drink but water.

Of their Habitations and Furniture. The dwellings of the ſavages were huts called *wigwams*, made with poles fixed in the ground, bent together, faſtened at the top, and covered with bark or mats of bulruſhes. The fire was in the middle of the hut, and an opening was left at the top for the ſmoke to eſcape. Their beds were mats or ſkins ſpread on boards a little raiſed. For cooking they uſed pots made of clay—their diſhes and ſpoons were of wood, hollowed and made very ſmooth. Pails were formed of birch bark, made ſquare, and furniſhed with a handle. Baſkets were made of the ſame material, or of ruſhes, bents, huſks of the maiz, ſilk graſs, or wild hemp, curiouſly wrought and ornamented.

Of their Dreſs. The natives of the northern parts of America had no clothing, when the Engliſh firſt came among them, except the ſkins of wild beaſts, and a few mantles made of fethers curiouſly interwoven. But all the natives of this country were very fond of beads and trinkets, for ornaments; faſtening them to their arms, legs, noſe and ears. When the Europeans began to trade with them, they exchanged their ſkins for blankets, and other cloths, and theſe a

their principal dress at this day: all savage nation very fond of feathers.

Of their Money and Arms. The money of the n era Indians consisted in the wampumpeague, us called *wampum*, which was made of small shells cut ly joined and wrought into broad strings or This was the medium of commerce, answerin purpose of silver and gold among other nations. arms of the savages were bows and arrows, clubs, especially the hatchet, called a *tomahawk*, which a sharpened stone, with a handle. After the arri Europeans, they laid aside the stone, and procured hatchets. They throw these with astonishing de ity, and are sure of hitting the object intended, great distance. They had no defensive armor, e a kind of shield made of bark.

Of their Canoes. All uncivilized nations mak of canoes, formed of bark or the trunks of trees hollow. These are of various sizes—from ten f length to a hundred. To save labor, the Indians fire to the trunk of a large tree and burn it hol then finish the canoo, by scraping and cutting. bark is used, it is moulded into a suitable shape, stre ened with ribs of wood, sued with strings or thre strong bark, and the seams smeared over with tu tine. The bark canoes are so light, that they ar ten carried by the Indians from river to river, or falls and over necks of land.

Of their Virtues and Vices. The good and bad ities of Indians are few, or confined to a few ob In general, a savage is governed by his passions, out much restraint from the authority of his c He is remarkably hospitable to strangers, offering the best accommodations he has, and always serving first. He never forgets a favor or an injury; bu make a grateful return for a favor, and revenge a jury whenever an opportunity offers, as long as he l *and* the remembrance is hereditary; for the chil

grandchild have the ſame paſſions, and will repay a kindneſs, or revenge a wrong, done to their anceſtor.

Of their Government and Religion. The tribes of Indians were under a government ſomewhat like a monarchy, with a mixture of ariſtocracy. Their chiefs, called ſagamores, ſachems, or cazekes, poſſeſſed the powers of government; but they uſually conſulted the old men of the tribe, on all important queſtions.

Their religion was idolatry, for they worſhipped the ſun, the moon, the earth, fire, images and the like. They had an idea of the Supreme Being, which they called the *Great Spirit*; and they believed in an evil ſpirit. They had prieſts called, *pawaws*, who pretended to arts of conjuration, and who acted as their phyſicians.

Of the Colour and Figure of the primitive Americans. The color of the American Indians is nearly an olive; and is the ſame, with little diverſity, in all latitudes. Their bodies are well formed, their hair long and black; their eyes uſually black and dull; their teeth white; their beard ſcanty. In all theſe particulars they reſemble the oriental Tartars. They are impatient of ſevere labor, but will walk or run with incredible ſpeed. They have a high ſenſe of liberty, and altho they are not acquainted with letters, they poſſeſs uncommon ſagacity and quick apprehenſion. They are ſlow in deliberation, but animated and eloquent in their ſpeeches; which abound with metaphors, bold, natural and expreſſive.

Of the Eſquimaux. In Labrador, and about the ſtrait of Davis, live a race or two of inhabitants altogether different from all the tribes in America. They are of ſmall ſize, ſhort legs, ill-ſhapen, with a broad face and flat noſe—reſembling the inhabitants of Lapland and Greenland, from whom it is ſuppoſed they deſcended. They ſubſiſt moſtly on fiſh or fleſh, which they eat raw or dried. Their climate is cold, and the winter long; during which thoſe ſavages dwell in cloſe *huts or ſubterraneous caves*, immerſed in filth and ſloth.

SECTION V.

Of the Discovery of America by Europeans.

Of Columbus.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, the first European who discovered the Western Continent, was a native of Genoa, and was bred to navigation. By his knowlege of the form of the earth, and of geography and astronomy, he was led to believe that there must be a continent on the west of the Atlantic to balance the vast tract of land on the east; and he imagined that by sailing westward, he might find a shorter course to China and the East Indies, than by travelling eastward. He therefore applied to the government of Genoa for assistance to enable him to undertake a voyage of discovery. He did not succeed. He then applied to Portugal, but with no better success. He was thought, as men of superior genius are often thought, a visionary projector.

Of Columbus's application to Spain. Columbus then made application to Ferdinand, king of Spain, for ships and men to proceed on a voyage westward; but for some years, he did not obtain his request. Finally, by the influence of the queen, Isabella, he obtained three ships and ninety men. He also obtained a Commission, dated April 30, 1492, constituting him Admiral, viceroy and governor, of all the islands and countries which he should discover and subdue, with full powers civil and criminal. With this authority, he sailed from Palos in Spain in August 1492.

Of the first Voyage. Not many days after Columbus left Spain, he was perplexed with the variations of the magnetic needle, which had not before been discovered, and which served to dishearten his mariners. To add to his perplexity, his seamen grew uneasy at venturing so far into an unexplored ocean, and threatened to throw him overboard, if he would not return. To quiet their minds, he promised that if land should

not appear within three days, he would return. On the third day, land was discovered, to the inexpressible joy of Columbus and of his seamen, who now humbled themselves for their refractory conduct. The land first seen was one of the Bahama islands, and on the 12th of October O. S. 1492.

Of the Discovery and Settlement of Hispaniola. Proceeding southward Columbus discovered Cuba, and Haiti; to the latter he gave the name of Hispaniola, which it still retains. Here he landed, entered into a friendly intercourse with the natives, built a fort, in which he left a garrison of thirty eight men, with orders to treat the natives with kindness, and sailed for Europe. On his voyage, a violent tempest arising, Columbus was apprehensive the ship would founder; and to afford a small chance that the world should not loose the benefit of his voyage, he wrote a short account of his discoveries, wrapped it in an oiled cloth, inclosed it in a cake of wax, and putting this into an empty cask, he committed it to the sea, in hopes that it might fall into the hands of some fortunate navigator, or be cast ashore. But the storm abated, and Columbus arrived safe in Spain.

Of the second Voyage of Columbus. In Sept. 1493, Columbus sailed from Cadiz on his second voyage to the new world, and discovered the Caribbee islands—to which he gave their present names—Dominico, Maragalant, Guadaloop, Montserrat and Antigua. Then steering for Cuba, he saw Jamaica, and proceeded to Hispaniola. On his arrival, he found that the men whom he had left in garrison, had been guilty of violence and rapine, and were all destroyed by the natives.

Of the first permanent Settlement in America. As the first colony which Columbus left, was cut off, he sought a more convenient and healthful situation, marked out the plan of a town, erected a rampart, and built houses. This town he called Isabella, in honor of the queen, his benefactress. The government of

this colony he committed to his brother, Don Diego, who, after Columbus had departed for Europe, abandoned this spot, and removing to the south side of the island, began the town called St. Domingo, the first permanent establishment in the new world.—Columbus returned to Spain early in 1496.

Of Columbus's third Voyage. In May 1498, Columbus left Spain on his third voyage, and proceeding farther southward, discovered and named *Trinidad*; and in August, discovered the main land, or continent of South America, along which he coasted two hundred leagues westward; then sailed to Hispaniola. When he arrived at St. Domingo, he found the colony in a mutinous state; but by prudent and firm measures, he composed the troubles. In the mean time, the discontented men repaired to Spain, and by false representations, persuaded the king to appoint Bovadilla, governor of the new world, with orders to take Columbus and send him to Spain. This commission was executed with inhuman severity, and the great Columbus was sent to Spain in chains.—Such is the reward which great and good men receive from vile factious men.

Of the Name given to this Continent. In 1499, Alonso Ojedo made a voyage to the western continent. With him was one Amerigo, or Americus Vespucius, a native of Florence, who wrote an account of the voyage, and pretending that he was the first discoverer of the Main Land, the country was called after him, AMERICA; which name, by the consent of nations, it has retained; to the injury of Cabot and Columbus who had discovered the continent the preceding year.

Of Columbus's fourth Voyage. Columbus arrived in Spain bound like a criminal; but was soon set at liberty by order of the king, to whom he justified his conduct in the most satisfactory manner. But he did not *recover* his authority, and Ovando was appointed *governor* of Hispaniola, in the place of Bovadilla. Columbus however prepared for a fourth voyage in

1502; intent upon finding a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by the weſt. In this voyage, he entered the gulf of Darien, and examined the coaſt. But meeting with furious ſtorms, he bore away for Hiſpaniola, and was ſhipwrecked on Jamaica.

Of the Fate of Columbus. Being caſt on an iſland, at a diſtance of thirty leagues from Hiſpaniola, and his ſhips all deſtroyed, Columbus was in extreme diſtreſs. But the natives were kind and furniſhed him with two canoes, in which two of his friends with ſome Indians rowed themſelves to St. Domingo. But the governor, Ovando, meanly jealous of Columbus, delayed to ſend a ſhip to bring him off, for eight months, during which time, Columbus was expoſed to famin, to the natives and to the malice of his own mutinous ſeamen. At laſt he was relieved, and furniſhed with two ſhips, with which he ſailed for Spain in 1504. Finding Iſabella, his patroneſs, dead; and himſelf neglected, he ſunk under his infirmities and died May 20, 1506, in the 59th year of his age.

Of the Pope's Grant to Spain. The king of Spain, to obtain a ſecure title to the new world, obtained from Pope Alexander the ſixth, a bull or patent, dated at Rome, May 4th, 1493, in which the objects of the grant are ſaid to be, to humanize and chriſtianize the ſavage nations of the new world. By this charter, the king of Spain was inveſted with ſovereign juriſdiction over all the iſlands and lands which had been or ſhould be diſcovered, weſt of a line running from pole to pole, at the diſtance of one hundred leagues weſt of all the Azores, and the Cape de Verd iſlands —to be held by him, his heirs and ſucceſſors forever— excepting ſuch iſlands and countries as were then actually poſſeſſed by ſome chriſtian king or prince.

Of the Progreſs of the Spaniſh Diſcoveries and Settlements. In the year 1500, one Pinzon, who had accompanied Columbus in his firſt voyage, ſailed to America, croſſed the equinoctial line, and diſcovered the Maranon, or Amazon, the largeſt river on the

globe. In the same year, one Cabral, a Portuguese, pushed his adventures further south, and discovered the country now called Brazil. Pinzon made a second voyage in 1508, with Solis, and proceeded as far south as the river which they called the river of *Plata*, or silver. In 1509 two adventurers, Ojedo and Nicuessa, attempted to form settlements on the continent, within the gulf of Darien, but were repelled by the natives. In the two following years, settlements were begun at Jamaica, Porto Rico, Darien and Cuba.

Of the Discovery of Florida and of the South Sea. In 1512, John Ponce, who had subdued Porto Rico, fitted out three ships and sailing northward fell in with land in the 30th degree of latitude, which he took possession of and called Florida. In the following year, one Balboa ascended the mountains of Darien, the narrow isthmus which connects North with South America, and espied the great South Sea, now called the Pacific Ocean. Delighted with this discovery, he proceeded to the water's edge, and wading in, till the water reached his waist, armed with his buckler and sword, he took possession of the ocean in the name of his king.

Of Discoveries in the Gulf of Mexico. In 1517, Cordova sailed from Cuba, discovered the great Peninsula of Yucatan, and the bay of Campeechy. But landing at the mouth of a river to procure fresh water, a considerable part of his men were killed and he was forced to return to Cuba, where he soon died. The next year, a more considerable force, under Grijalva, visited the same bay and encountering the natives, defeated them not without difficulty. To this country Grijalva gave the name of *New Spain*, which name it still bears; as well as that of Mexico, the name of the country among the natives.—This expedition returned to St. Jago without attempting a settlement.—*In the* same year, one Garay coasted along the northern shore of the Gulf of Mexico, to the river Panuco.

Of the Conquest of Mexico. In 1519, Velasquez,

governor of Cuba, fitted out an armament of eleven small vessels, and six hundred and seventeen men, under the command of Fernando Cortez, for the invasion of Mexico. As fire arms were not generally in use, only thirteen men had muskets; the rest being armed with cross bows, swords and spears. Cortez had however ten small field pieces, and sixteen horses—the first of these animals ever seen in that country. With this small force, Cortez landed in Mexico, to encounter one of the most powerful empires. After many negociations, alliances, marches and counter marches; many battles and extreme hardships, Cortez subdued the Mexican Empire, then under the government of the brave, the hospitable, but unfortunate Montezuma, and entered the city of Mexico in triumph on the 13th of August 1521.

Of the Means by which Cortez conquered Mexico. It is a most instructive lesson which the fall of Mexico is calculated to teach. Cortez could not have made any impression on that great empire, containing many millions of people, had he not availed himself of the factions among the different provinces of the empire. But no sooner had he arrived, than one of the nations, which paid tribute to Montezeuma, and was impatient to shake off the yoke, offered to join him. These were the Totonacas, who first assisted the Spaniards to conquer Mexico—and then were subdued in turn. Thus nations are often ruined by their own divisions—foolishly, imagining to lessen the burthens of government, they revolt against their own king or state, join the invaders of their country, who first conquer their *foes*, and then rivet shackles on their *allies*.

Of the first Voyage round the Globe. While Cortez was conquering Mexico, Magellan, a distinguished navigator, who had served under the famous Portuguese adventurer, Alburquerk, fitted out five small ships and sailed from Spain in August 1519, in search of a *passage to India* by the west. Proceeding *southward along the* American coast, he entered the Str

which now bears his name, doubled the ſouthern point of this continent, lanched into the vaſt ocean, which he called the *Pacific*, touched at the Ladrones, and after enduring extreme diſtreſs from bad proviſions and ſickneſs, arrived at the Philippines, where a conteſt with the natives aroſe, in which he loſt his life. But his officers proceeded on their voyage, paſſed the Cape of Good Hope, and arrived in Spain in September 1522. This was the firſt time that any mortal had encompaſſed the globe.

Of the Diſcovery of Peru. After Balboa had diſcovered the South Sea, a ſettlement was made on the weſtern ſide of Darien, called Panama. From this town, ſeveral attempts had been made to explore the ſouthern continent, but without any remarkable occurrence. In 1524, three perſons, Pizarro, Almagro and de Luque aſſociated for the purpoſe of extending their adventures and diſcoveries. Their firſt expedition was attended with ill ſucceſs. Pizarro however in a ſecond attempt, ſailed as far as Peru, and diſcovered that rich and flouriſhing country. Pleaſed with the diſcovery, he returned to Panama, and was ſent by the governor to Spain for a commiſſion, and a military force to ſupport an expedition and enſure ſucceſs.

Of the Conqueſt of Peru. Pizarro obtained a commiſſion and a ſmall force, and returned to Panama; from whence he ſailed in February 1531, to attempt the conqueſt of one of the fineſt kingdoms in America, with no more than one hundred and eighty men. With theſe and and a ſmall reinforcement, he marched to the reſidence of the king, and having invited him to a friendly interview, in which he attempted to perſuade him to adopt the chriſtian religion, he, with matchleſs perfidy, ſeized the monarch a priſoner, and ordering his ſoldiers to ſlay his unſuſpecting, and aſtoniſhed attendants, four thouſand were ſlain without reſiſtance.

Of the Progreſs of Pizarro. The Peruvian monarch, Atahualpa, was no ſooner a priſoner, than he deviſed the means of procuring his releaſe. Finding the Spa-

iards exceſſively eager after gold, he offered to fill the apartment in which he was confined, which was twenty two feet by ſixteen, with veſſels of gold and ſilver, as high as he could reach. This offer was accepted, and gold was collected from diſtant parts of the empire, until the treaſure amounted to more than the value of two millions of dollars, which was divided among the conquerors. But the perfidious Pizarro would not then releaſe the Inca; he ſtill kept him a priſoner; and Almagro having joined him with a reinforcement, they brought the Inca to trial before a court erected for the occaſion—charged him with being an uſurper and an idolater, condemned and executed him. The Peruvian government being deſtroyed, all parts of the empire were ſucceſſively ſubdued.

Of the State of Peru when Conquered. The Spaniards found the Peruvians farther advanced towards civilization, than any American nation, except the Mexicans; and in ſome reſpects, farther than that nation. About three hundred years before the invaſion of the Spaniards, a man and woman of ſuperior genius arrived in that country, who, pretending to be deſcended from the ſun, commanded an uncommon degree of veneration. The man, whoſe name was Manco Capac, collected the wandering tribes into a ſocial union, inſtructed them in the uſeful arts, curbed their paſſions, enacted ſalutary laws, made a judicious diſtribution of lands and directed them to be tilled; in ſhort he laid the foundation of a great and a proſperous empire. Mama Ocollo, the woman, taught the arts of ſpinning and weaving. Manco Capac was called *Inca*, or Lord, and his deſcendants governed this happy nation for twelve generations. By the laws of this empire, human ſacrifices were forbid, and the general policy of its inſtitutions was mild.

Of the Cauſes of the Ruin of Peru. Juſt before the Spaniards landed in Peru, that kingdom had been torn with factions and civil war. Huana Capac, the twelfth in deſcent from Manco, had two ſons, one

by a wife of the royal blood of the Incas, called Huaſcar; another named Atahualpa, by a woman of foreign blood. He appointed the latter his ſucceſſor in the government of Quito, which diſguſted the lawful heir, Huaſcar. This produced a war in which Atahualpa triumphed: Huaſcar was defeated, and taken priſoner. In this ſituation was the kingdom of Peru, when the Spaniards arrived. Thus weakened by internal diviſions, it fell an eaſy prey to the invaders. Such are the deplorable effects of factions and diſſenſions, which uſually begin in the lawleſs ambition of bold, daring men, and end in public miſery!

*Of the firſt Expedition on the Maranon.** In the year 1540, Gonzalo, a brother of Pizarro, and governor of Quito, croſſed the Andes with a body of troops, and a great number of Indians to carry their proviſions, with a view to make diſcoveries. After a long march amidſt precipices, rocks, thick woods and moraſſes, they arrived at a large river, called Napo, which is one of the head branches of the Maranon. Here they built a ſmall veſſel, on board of which were tranſported the proviſions and baggage, under the command of Orellana, with fifty men, while the reſt marched along the bank. But Orellana betrayed his truſt, and being wafted along the ſtream with rapidity, he left Gonzalo and his attendants; entered the vaſt river, Maranon, and purſuing his courſe to the mouth, a diſtance of four or five thouſand miles, he had the good fortune to reach the Spaniſh ſettlement at Cubaqua in ſafety. This was the firſt time that any European had explored the largeſt river on earth, and one of the boldeſt enterprizes recorded. Gonzalo, confounded at the trechery of Orellana, was obliged to return to Quito, diſtant twelve hundred miles, in which journey, four thouſand Indians and two hundred and ten Spaniards periſhed with famin and fatigue.

* *Improperly* called Amazon.

Of the Fate of Pizarro and Almagro. Mankind re ſeldom contented even with the ſplendor of power nd riches. The conquerors of Peru ſoon began to e jealous of each other, and to contend for domin-on. Each having the government of a certain diſtrict f country, but the limits not well known, a civil war ommenced, in which Almagro was defeated and ta-en priſoner; tried, condemned and executed. His on Almagro, tho young, reſolved to avenge his fa-her's wrongs, and collecting a body of firm adherents, ie privately marched to the houſe of Pizarro, attacked im at midday, and ſlew him and his attendants.—uch was the fate of theſe bold, but inhuman conquer-rs, and ſuch the reward of their cruelty, avarice, and erfidy!

SECTION VI.

Of the diſcovery and ſettlement of North America.

Of Cabot.

SOON after the new world was diſcovered by Columbus, a ſpirit of enterprize was excited in all he commercial nations of Europe. The firſt adven-turer from England was John Cabot, a native of Ve-nice, reſiding in Briſtol; who, under a commiſſion from Henry VII, ſailed on a voyage of diſcovery. On the 24th of June 1494 or 5, he diſcovered land, which he called *Prima Viſta*, which, in Italian, his na-ive language, ſignify *firſt ſight*. This land is ſuppoſed o be Newfoundland. He diſcovered alſo an iſland which he called St. John's, on which he landed. His on Sebaſtian is underſtood to have accompanied him n this voyage.

Of the ſecond Voyage. King Henry granted to John Cabot *and his three* ſons, Lewis, Sebaſtian and Sanc-*ius, a commiſſion* dated March 5th 1496, authoriſing

them to diſcover and take poſſeſſion of unknown lands, and to erect his banners on any land by them already diſcovered. On the 3d of February 1498, he gave them a licenſe to take ſhips for this purpoſe in any port of the kingdom. In this year, Sebaſtian Cabot firſt diſcovered the Continent, north of the St. Lawrence, ſince called Labrador, and coaſted along the ſhore from 67 degrees of North Latitude to Florida. He made a chart of the coaſt, which, for a century, hung under his picture in Whitehall. He was the firſt diſcoverer of the *Continent*, for he made the land June 11, O. S. Whereas, Columbus did not diſcover the Continent till Auguſt 1.

Of other Voyages to North America. Cabot made a voyage to America and proceeded ſouth as far as Brazil, in 1516. One Verrazano was ſent by the French king to make diſcoveries in 1524, and this man ſailed along the North American coaſt to the fiftieth degree of N. latitude. He named the country New France. In 1528, Narvaez, a Spaniard, ſailed from Cuba with four hundred men, to make a ſettlement in Florida. He landed and marched into the country of the Apalaches; and after travelling over two or three hundred leagues of country, with incredible fatigue, finding no gold or ſilver of any value, haraſſed by the ſavages, and reduced by hunger to the neceſſity of feeding on human fleſh, moſt of them periſhed and a few ſurvivors only found their way to Mexico.

Of the firſt Attempt to ſettle Canada. One Cartier, a Frenchman, ſailed to America and entered the bay of the Iroquois, in 1534, with the view to find a north weſt paſſage to India. He returned to France, but the next year he purſued the ſame courſe, entered the river, and penetrated as far as Montreal, where he built a fort and ſpent the winter. The next ſummer, he invited ſome of the natives on board of his ſhip, and trecherouſly carried them to France, to obtain from *them* a more perfect knowledge of the country. But *the natives* were ſo much provoked, that the inter-

course of the French traders with them was much retarded. At this time a settlement was not effected.

Of the first Settlement of Acadia. Cartier obtained from the French king, Francis I. a commission for discovering and planting new countries, dated October 17, 1540. The royal motive assigned in the commission was, to introduce among the heathen, the knowledge of the gospel and the Catholic faith. With this authority, Cartier, in connection with the Baron de Roberval, brought two hundred men and women to America and began a plantation four leagues above the haven of St. Croix. This territory was called Acadia, by the French; but by the English, has been called Nova Scotia.

Of Soto's Expedition in Florida. Ferdinand de Soto had served under Pizarro in the conquest of Peru, with such reputation as to obtain from the King of Spain the government of Cuba, with the rank of General of Florida, and Marquis of the lands he should conquer. This enterprising commander collected a body of nine hundred foot and three hundred and fifty horse, for an expedition into Florida, where he landed in May 1539. From the gulf of Mexico he penetrated into the country northward, and wandered about in search of gold, exposed to famin, hardships and the opposition of the natives. He pursued his course north to the country inhabited by the Chickesaws, where he spent a winter. He then crossed the Mississippi, being the first European that had discovered that vast river. After a long march into the country westward, in which Soto died, the remains of his troops returned to the Mississippi. Here they built a number of small vessels, in which they sailed down the stream, and made the best of their way to Panuco in Mexico, where they arrived in Sept. 1543. In this extraordinary expedition of more than four years duration, in the wilderness, and among hostile savages, more than half the men perished. Such was the unconquerable desire of gold in the Spaniards of that age!

Of the Settlement of Carolina. In 1562, John Ribaud, a French Protestant, during the civil wars in

France, formed a design of making a settlement in America, as a retreat from persecution. With two ships of war and a considerable body of forces, he sailed to America, made land in the thirtieth degree of latitude, and not finding a harbor, proceeded northerly, till he discovered a river, which he called May river, now Ediſto. Near this he built a fort, in which he left a garrison of twenty six men, and calling it *Caroline*, returned to France. During the following winter, the garrison mutinied, assassinated Albert, their commander, and fearing they should not receive supplies, they embarked, in the spring, for Europe. Being becalmed for twenty days, and provisions failing, they appeased their hunger with human flesh —at last they were taken up by an English ship, landed in England, and conducted to the queen to relate their adventures.

Of the Progress of the French Settlement. In 1564, Laudoniere, another Frenchman, carried another colony and planted them on the same spot. But the Spaniards, jealous of this settlement, sent a large force, which destroyed the colony, putting to death old and young, in the most barbarous manner, a few only escaping to France. Melandez, the Spanish commander, left there a garrison of twelve hundred men. One Gourges, a native of Gascony, to revenge this outrage, equipped three ships, landed in 1568, and with the assistance of the Indians, took the fort, razed it to the ground, and slew most of the Spaniards. Not being in a situation to keep possession, the French returned to France, and both nations abandoned the country.

Of the Voyages of Frobisher, Drake and Gilbert. In 1567, Capt. Frobisher sailed from England for the purpose of discovering a north west passage to the East Indies; but after penetrating the northern bays, as high as 63 degrees of latitude, the ice compelled him to desist and he returned. Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the globe from 1577 to 1580; which was the *second* voyage round the world. In 1578, Sir Humfrey Gilbert obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth, for

diſcovering and taking poſſeſſion of unknown lands, which patent was dated June 11. The conditions of the grant were, that he and his aſſociates ſhould adhere to their allegiance, and obſerve the laws of England and pay to the crown a fifth of the gold and ſilver ore, which they ſhould obtain. His firſt voyage was made in 1583. He diſcovered Newfoundland and the adjoining country, landed at St. John's; and took poſſeſſion for the crown of England; but on his return, his ſhip foundered and he was loſt.

Of Sir Walter Raleigh's Patent. Queen Elizabeth, by patent dated March 25, 1584, granted to Sir Walter Raleigh authority to diſcover, occupy and govern "remote, heathen and barbarous countries," not previouſly poſſeſſed by any chriſtian prince or people. Under this commiſſion, two ſhips commanded by Amidas and Barlow, arrived in America, in July 1584. Theſe men landed at Roanoke, took poſſeſſion of the country for the crown of England and called it *Virginia.* The ſpot where they took poſſeſſion is now within the limits of North Carolina. They returned and giving a flattering account of the country, Sir Richard Grenville was ſent the next year to begin a ſettlement.

Of the firſt Attempts to ſettle Virginia. The adventurers under Sir Richard Grenville were one hundred and ſeven, who fixed their reſidence on the iſland of Roanoke, and were left there under the command of Mr. Lane. Theſe perſons rambling into the country, without due caution, or provoking the Indians by their lawleſs conduct, many of them were cut off by the ſavages—others periſhed with want. The ſurvivors were taken to England by Sir Francis Drake, the following year, after his expedition againſt the Spaniards, in which he ſacked St. Jago in the Cape de Verds, pillaged St. Domingo, took Carthagena and forced the inhabitants to ranſom it; then took and deſtroyed the fort at Auguſtine in Florida.

Of the Progreſs of the Settlements in Virginia. Within a fortnight after the firſt colony had departed f

England, Sir Richard Grenville arrived with provisions and an additional number of adventurers. Not finding the former colony, he left a few people and returned to England.—In 1587 a third expedition was profecuted under Mr. White, with three ships, and one hundred and fifteen perfons were left at Roanoke. It was three years before any fupplies were fent to maintain this colony, and when Governor White arrived in 1590, no Engliſhmen were to be found, and it was evident they had periſhed with hunger or been ſlain by the ſavages. The laſt adventurers therefore returned, and all further attempts to eſtabliſh a colony in Virginia were poſtponed.

Of Gofnold's Voyage to America. In the year 1602, Capt. Gofnold ſailed from England with a ſmall number of adventurers, arrived at Cape Cod and coaſting ſouthward landed on Cuttehunk, the moſt ſoutherly of the Elizabeth Iſlands. On a ſmall iſland, in a freſh water pond, within the large iſland, he built a hut and remained about ſix weeks. But his men not being willing to be left there, they all returned and effected nothing. Gofnold gave Cape Cod its name, from the abundance of Cod Fiſh about it—He alſo named the Elizabeth Iſlands, and Martha's Vinyard. But the iſland which he called Martha's Vinyard is a ſmall iſland near it, now called Noman's land; the name has ſince been transferred to the preſent iſland of that name, which he called Dover Cliff, from the reſemblance of the high ſteep bank, now called Gay Head, to the cliffs of Dover in England.

Of the French Settlements. The French King, by letters patent, dated November 8th, 1603, granted to de Monts the ſole juriſdiction over the country called *Acadia*, extending "from the fortieth to the forty ſixth degree of latitude," with the title of Lieutenant General, with power to appoint officers civil and military, to *build forts*, towns and the like. Under this patent, were made the French ſettlements on the Iroquois and in Nova Scotia, which afterwards proved the cauſe

and the ſcene of wars between France and England, and the ſource of innumerable calamities to the Engliſh Colonies, until the peace of 1763.

Of the Voyages of Davis and Weymouth. In 1585, Capt. John Davis made an attempt to find a north weſt paſſage to India, in which he proceeded to the ſixty ſeventh degree of latitude, where meeting with fields of ice, in the ſtrait that bears his name, he returned. The next year he purſued the ſame track and penetrated Baffin's bay to the eightieth degree of latitude, but returned, having done nothing, but barter a few toys for ſeal ſkins. In 1605, Sir George Weymouth made a like attempt, but fell to the ſouthward, coaſted along New England, entered the bay of Penaquid, but returned without accompliſhing any important object, except carrying to England three natives, who were afterwards uſeful to the Plymouth company in their attempts to ſettle America.

Of the Firſt Charter of Virginia. The firſt grant from the crown of England, under which effectual ſettlements were made in Virginia and New England, was dated April 10, 1606. By this charter, king James aſſigned to Sir Thomas Gates and others, all the lands in America from the latitude of 34 degrees to 45, all which was then called Virginia. But by this charter two companies were conſtituted. One called the *London* Company, and to this were aſſigned all the lands between 34 and 41 degrees of latitude, extending inland one hundred miles from the ſea coaſt, with all the iſlands within one hundred miles of the main land. To the other, called the *Plymouth* company, were aſſigned the lands between 38 and 45 degrees of latitude, extending one hundred miles into the main land, with all the iſlands within one hundred miles. The firſt tract was called *South* Virginia and the other *North* Virginia.

Of the ſecond Charter to the London Company. By charter *dated* May 23, 1609. King James incorporated *the London* company with full powers of govern

ment in America. A council was appointed resident in England, with powers to appoint the governor and other officers of the Virginia colony. By this charter, the boundaries of Virginia were enlarged; the grant extending from Point Comfort on the north two hundred miles and on the south two hundred miles along the sea coast, and westward and north westward into the main land throughout from sea to sea, with the islands within a hundred miles of the coast.

Of the Settlement of Virginia. Under the authority of the first patent, the London company sent Capt. Newport to Virginia at the close of the year 1606, with a company of adventurers, Mr. Wingfield being their President. As the usual course from England to America, at that time, was by the West Indies, Newport did not arrive till the end of April 1607. Entering the bay of Chesopeek, he gave name to Cape Henry, sailed into the Powhattan or James River, and began a plantation, called Jamestown, in which he left 104 persons and returned to England. The next year he carried 120 persons to join the colony, with supplies of provisions.

Of the Voyage of Sir George Somers. In 1609, Sir George Somers and Sir Thomas Gates sailed for Virginia, with a number of ships and five hundred adventurers, consisting of men, women and children. Before they arrived they were overtaken with a tremendous tempest and obliged to run one of their ships ashore on the island to which the name of *Somers* was at first given, but which is now called *Bermuda.* The island was uninhabited, but with such materials as they had saved from their ship, or found on the spot, they built a small pinnace or two, and after several months residence, on Bermuda, sailed to Virginia. Finding the colony reduced by sickness and want, they resolved to abandon the country and actually sailed for England. But the next day, meeting Lord Delaware with fresh supplies, they all returned, and prosecuted the planting of the country. In 1611, Sir Thomas Dale arriv-

ed with 300 additional settlers, and the colony was established.

Of the third Virginia Charter. A third charter was obtained by the London company, dated March 12, 1612. The chief object of this, seems to have been to obtain an enlargement and an alteration of the powers of the company; as the first governors of the colony found many of the settlers disobedient and refractory; and also to extend the limits of the grant so as to comprehend the island of Bermuda, which, by the shipwreck of Sir George Somers, had been explored, and was deemed an object of magnitude to the company, but did not fall within their patent. In the third charter, the jurisdiction of the company was extended over all islands within three hundred leagues of the boundary of the first patent on the ocean, and between 30 and 41 degrees of latitude.—This included Bermuda.

Of the Attempt to Settle North Virginia or New England. In 1606 the Plymouth company sent Capt. Challons to make further discoveries and begin a plantation in America; but steering southward he was taken by a Spanish fleet and carried to Spain. A ship under Capt. Prinn, arrived, explored the rivers and bays, but not finding Challons, returned. The next year, Captain Popham, with two ships, and one hundred adventurers, came to America, and began a plantation on Monhegan, an island near the mouth of Sagadahoc, now called Kennebec, in the month of August. But the following winter proving to be unusually severe, President Popham dying, and a magazene of their provisions being burnt, the settlement was broke up, and the survivors returned to England.

Of the Voyages of Hudson. Henry Hudson, an Englishman, probably in the service of the Dutch, sailed in quest of a North West Passage, in 1607, and penetrated as far north as 80 degrees of latitude. From him were *named the* strait and great bay on the north

of Labrador. He made a second voyage the next year, to the same region, without success. In this voyage, it is supposed he sailed along the coast southward, discovered and gave name to the river which washes New York and Albany.

Of the settlement of New York. Hudson was in the service of the Dutch East India company, or sold his claims to that company, which obtained a patent for an exclusive trade on the river Hudson. In pursuance of which, a number of trading adventurers built a fort at Albany, in 1612 or 13 and in 1614, on the island Manhattan, now New York. The country was called New Netherlands—the settlement on Manhattan was named New Amsterdam, which names they retained, till the conquest of the country by the English in 1664. By charter dated June 3, 1621, an exclusive right to trade to America was vested, by the States General, in the West India company, and the settlement on Manhattan was prosecuted with success.

Of Newfoundland. An attempt was made to settle the large but barren island, Newfoundland, under a grant of king James to the Earl of Northampton and others, dated April 27, 1610. A small party began a plantation in the same year; but the island is not yet populous; the climate being cold and the soil not fruitful. The island is principally valued as a shelter for the fishermen, and a station for drying cod fish, which are taken in vast quantities on its banks.

Of the Settlement of Bermuda. The London company having obtained a grant of Bermuda, they sold the property of it to one hundred and twenty of their company, who obtained a charter in 1612, and sent a colony of sixty persons there, the same year, under the government of Richard Moor, calling the islands after Sir George Somers. In the course of the following year, five ships were sent with near five hundred additional adventurers, and the colony was established. This cluster of islands had been discovered almost one

hundred years before, by one Bermuda, a Spaniard; and they ſtill bear his name, in common language.

Of the Name of New England. Capt. John Smith, a famous adventurer, ſailed with two ſhips, to the coaſt of America, in 1614; and while his men were employed in fiſhing, he ranged along the coaſt from Monhegan to Cape Cod.— He left one ſhip, and went to England in the other; where he formed and publiſhed a chart of the coaſt, which he preſented to Prince Charles, who gave the country the name of *New England*. Capt. Hunt, whom he left with the other ſhip, treacherouſly took twenty of the natives, in his ſhip, and carried them to Malaga where he ſold them for ſlaves. This provoked the Indians to ſuch a degree as to render it difficult and dangerous to trade with them; and the good effects of a voyage the ſame year, made by Capt. Harley to Martha's Vinyard, were prevented by the oppoſition of the Indians, who manned a great number of Canooes, attacked and wounded the maſter and many of the crew.

Of ſeveral Voyages to America. The brave Capt. Smith, attempting to ſail to America in 1615, to begin a ſettlement, loſt his maſts in a gale, and put back to Plymouth—Embarking in another veſſel immediately, he was taken by French ſhips of war and carried to France. In 1616 it appears that he was in England, for he publiſhed his account and his map of New England. In this latter year, Capt. Baffin renewed the attempt to find a north weſt paſſage to China, explored Hudſon's Bay, entered the Bay called by his name, and aſcended to the 78th degree of latitude. At this time the fiſheries on the coaſt were proſecuted with great numbers of ſhips and great ſucceſs. In 1619, Capt. Dermer paſſed thro Long Iſland Sound; and he was probably the firſt European who explored the coaſt of Connecticut.

Of the Settlement of New England. The firſt ſettlers in New England were puritans or diſſenters from *the church of* England, who, being greatly perſecuted

during the reign of James the first, fled from England to enjoy in peace their religious principles and worship. Mr. Robinson and his congregation first left the north of England, and took up their abode in Amsterdam, in 1607 and 1608. But on account of some differences with another congregation under Mr. Smith, they removed in about a year to Leyden, where they lived in harmony, till they removed to America. These adventurers attempted to procure a patent under the Virginia Company; but they found it very difficult, on account of the odiousness of their principles. They finally obtained one in the name of John Wincob, but, he failing to remove to America, it was of no use, and they resolved to remove without one.

Of the Voyage of the first Settlers. The first colony consisting of a part only of Mr. Robinson's congregation, sailed from Holland in July 1620, and put into Southampton in England, where a larger ship was prepared. They left that port in August, but the ship being leaky, they put into Dartmouth, from whence they sailed in two ships on the 21st of the same month. After proceeding a hundred leagues, they were compelled to return to Plymouth; one ship being leaky was condemned, and the other proceeded on her voyage. This ship left England, Sept. 6th, and arrived in November, at Cape Cod: The company intended to bear away to Hudson's River, but were terrified with the breakers on the shoals, and changing their course, put into harbor.

Of the Progress of the Settlers. This colony did not arrive till the 11th of November O. S. when the weather was cold, and then they had not determined on a spot for their settlements. Parties were dispatched to explore the country, which, after incredible sufferings from cold, snow and rain, found a harbor. Here the people landed on the 20th of December 1620, after prayers and thanks to heaven, for safety and guidance, and immediately began to erect buildings, giving to the plantation the name of Plymouth, after the

ame of the town which they laſt left in England. efore they landed, they ſigned articles by which they rmed themſelves into a body politic. By means of iſeaſes occaſioned by colds and ſevere ſufferings, the ttlers, who were one hundred and one ſouls, loſt half eir number, in about five months.

Of the firſt cultivation of Maiz or Indian Corn. On e opening of ſpring, the ſettlers ſowed barley, and eaſe which produced an indifferent crop. Indian orn was the grain which furniſhed them with a great art of their ſubſiſtence, but as they never before ſaw , Squanto, an Indian who had been carried to Spain y Capt. Hunt, but had returned, aſſiſted them in lanting and dreſſing it. This was the beginning of e cultivation of a grain which is the ſtaple production f New England.

Of the Patent to the Duke of Lenox, and others. In e very month, when the firſt ſettlers arrived in Amer-a, King James granted a patent to the Duke of Len-x and others, dated November 3, 1620, incorpora-ng them with the ſtile of the "Council eſtabliſhed t Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the plant-ng and governing of New England in America," with ll powers to purchaſe and hold lands, appoint offi-rs and make laws. The limits of the grant to them ere, "from 40 to 48 degrees of latitude, through-ut the main lands from ſea to ſea," with the iſlands djoining, provided they were not occupied by any oth-r Chriſtian prince or ſtate, and on condition of paying the crown a fifth of the gold and ſilver ore they ould find and obtain. By this patent, the territory ranted, which had been before called *North Virginia*, ceived the name of *New England* from royal author-y, and from this were derived all the ſubſequent rants of the ſeveral parts of the territory.

Of the Grants to John Maſon and Ferdinando Gorges. y a deed, dated March 9, 1621, the Council of Plym-uth granted to John Maſon, the lands from Naum-eag, now Salem, to the Merrimac, extending inland

to the heads of those rivers—the lands on which now built Beverly, Ipswich and Newbury Port. T district was called *Mariana.* By another grant, d August 10, 1622, the council assigned to Gorges Mason jointly all the lands between the Merrimac Sagadahoc, extending westward to the Rivers of C ada, which district was called *Laconia.* Within grant lies the present state of New Hampshire.

Of the Settlement of New Hampshire. Under grants to Gorges and Mason, a number of person rived in the river Piscataway in 1623 and began settlements—one at the mouth, at a place called little harbor—the other at the place now called De These settlements were enlarged at first very flo but they were the small beginnings of the present of New Hampshire.

Of the Grant of Nova Scotia. William Alexan a Scots gentleman, obtained from king James, a g dated September 10, 1621, of the lands exten from Cape Sable to St. Mary's Bay, thence to source of the river St. Croix, thence northerly to nearest river or harbor on the St. Lawrence or quois, thence along the bank of that river to a ha called Gaspe, thence easterly to the north point of C Breton, and thence to Cape Sable. To this dis was then given the present name *Nova Scotia,* w signifies New Scotland. This district was a par the lands granted by the French king to de Monts 1603, and which has since been the subject of co between Great Britain and France. This grant confirmed to Alexander by king Charles, the first patent dated July 12, 1625.

Of a Grant to Robert Gorges. Robert Gorges, son of Ferdinand, obtained a grant from the counc Plymouth, dated Dec. 30, 1622, of a tract of land the north side of the bay of Massachusetts, ten mile bredth and extending thirty miles into the land. U der this grant, he attempted a settlement, the s year, at the place now called Weymouth; the

which a company of adventurers, under one Weſton, had occupied the year before and abandoned. But the ſettlers were not contented with the ſituation or with the country—and ſoon forſaking the place, the intention of Gorges was fruſtrated. In 1625, Capt. Wollaſton, with a ſmall company, arrived and planted themſelves at Mount Wollaſton, now Quincy. With them was one Morton, a lawyer, who gave the ſettlers great trouble, and who was finally ſeized by the Plymouth people and ſent a priſoner to England.

Of the Charter of Maſſachuſetts. By deed bearing date March 19, 1628, the Plymouth company granted to Sir Henry Roſewell and others, all the lands lying between a line three miles north of Merrimac River, and a line three miles ſouth of every part of Charles River, and of the bay of Maſſachuſetts, and extending with the ſame bredth, throughout the main lands from the Atlantic to the South Sea. A charter dated March 4, 1629 was obtained from the crown of England, by which that grant was confirmed, and the company erected into a corporation, with ample powers of government. Matthew Cradock was appointed the firſt governor, and ſworn March 18, 1629. Under this charter was Maſſachuſetts ſettled.

Of the Settlements in Salem and Charleſtown. In the year 1628, a company of adventurers under Mr. John Endicot, arrived at Naumkeag, the Indian name of a river, and began a plantation, which was called *Salem.* A ſmall ſettlement under Mr. Oldham and Mr. Conant had been begun at Nantaſket in 1624; and the people removed to Cape Ann, in the following year. But all theſe ſmall ſettlements were brought under the government of the Salem colony.

In 1630, a conſiderable fleet arrived at Salem, with fifteen hundred paſſengers, and ſome of the moſt reſpectable of the primitive families in New England, Governor Winthrop, Governor Dudly, Sir Richard Saltonſtall and many others. Not liking that place as a capital town, they removed and planted themſelves at Charleſtown

Of the Progreſs of the Settlements to the Building of Boſton. Unfortunately many of the paſſengers were taken ſick on the voyage, and a malignant fever, in one of the ſhips in 1629, was communicated to the ſettlers on ſhore, which occaſioned an alarming mortality. This and other diſcouragements induced more than one hundred of the people to return, by the firſt ſhips, to England. But moſt of them perſevered, and conceiving the Peninſula, on the other ſide of the river, to be a ſafe and convenient place for their principal town, they removed before winter, began the town and named it BOSTON, after the town of that name in England. Sir Richard Saltonſtall's company ſat down at Watertown—Mr. Warham and his people planted Dorcheſter.

Of the Plymouth Patent. In January 1630, the council for planting New England, granted to Governor Bradford of Plymouth, and his aſſociates, a patent of a tract of land, extending from a rivulet called Cohaſſet to Narraganſet River and weſtward to a country called Paconokit; and a tract of fifteen miles on each ſide of the river Kennebec, with full powers of colonial government. The ſettlement at Plymouth conſtituted a colony diſtinct from Maſſachuſetts, until the year 1692, when it was annexed to Maſſachuſetts.

Of Connecticut. The ſettlers at Manhattan and in Maſſachuſetts, very ſoon obtained a knowledge of the fertility of the lands on the river Connecticut, and laid claim to the territory. The Plymouth people formed a deſign of beginning a plantation there, and applied to the Maſſachuſetts ſettlers to join them in 1633. The governor and council of Maſſachuſetts declined, as they were not certain the territory fell within their patent. In the ſummer of 1633, a bark was ſent to Manhattan by the Governor of Maſſachuſetts, for the purpoſe of ſignifying to the Dutch Governor, Van Twilly, that the Engliſh colonies claimed Connecticut by virtue of their charter: To which the Dutch Governor replied, in a polite letter, that the Dutch company claimed

also.—Both parties desired the other to forbear making any plantation on that river.

Of the first Settlements on the Connecticut. In October 1633, a small vessel was sent by the Plymouth colony, to erect a trading house on the bank of the Connecticut. When passing up the river, the men found the Dutch had arrived there before them, and had built a fort which they called Good Hope on the west bank, near the mouth of a small river, within the present town of Hartford. The Dutch forbid the men to proceed, threatening to fire on them; but the Plymouth men, disregarding the threat, advanced a few miles further, and erected a trading house within the present town of Windsor. The Dutch sent to Holland for a commission to dispossess them, and the next year, a party attempted it; but after some menaces, they departed without committing any violence.

Of the Settlement of Wethersfield. In June 1635, a bark of forty tons and twenty servants, belonging to Sir Richard Saltonstall, arrived at Boston from England; being sent to begin a plantation on the Connecticut. These, with a few adventurers from Watertown, repaired to Connecticut and began a settlement at Pequaug which they called *Wethersfield.* This was probably in July, for the ancient laws of the colony declare Wethersfield to be the oldest town on the river. The bark, after landing the people, returned, and on her passage to England, was cast away on the isle of Sable, but the seamen were saved.

Of the Settlement of Windsor. In the summer of 1635, the people of Dorchester began a plantation near the Plymouth Trading House. This was in the latter part of July or beginning of August. The Plymouth people were much offended, and complained of this as an injury; for they considered their prior possession as giving them a fair claim to the lands, and they had also purchased them of the Indians. The controversy however was adjusted by making satisfaction to the

Plymouth men, or the latter relinquished their claims; and the Dorchester people, continuing on the lands, began the town of Windsor.

Of the Progress of Settlements on the Connecticut. In October 1635, the Dorchester people, to the number of sixty, with their cows and swine, travelled by land to the Connecticut, to join their brethren at Windsor. It being late in the season, and no fodder being provided, most of the cattle died in the ensuing winter. A part of them remained on the east side of the river and lived by browsing on the shrubs. Two shallops laden with goods and provisions, were dispatched by water, but were cast away at the Gurnet near Plymouth, and all the people perished. The people of Connecticut waited for their provisions, till famin threatened them; and then went down the river in hopes of meeting the expected supplies. Being disappointed, they embarked on board of a vessel at the mouth of the river, and after great distress, arrived at Boston, having lost some of their number by hunger. Those who wintered in Connecticut were obliged to eat acorns, malt and grains. The value of the cattle which died was two thousand pounds sterling.

Of the Settlement of Hartford. The congregation at Newtown, now Cambridge, with Mr. Hooker their pastor, left that place early in summer 1636, and travelled by land to Connecticut, driving one hundred and sixty cattle, thro a pathless wilderness, without shelter, or bridges over rivers. They began a plantation and called it Newtown, which name was afterward exchanged for Hartford. The Indian name was Sukeeg. The towns of Wethersfield, Windsor and Hartford being thus settled, associated and chose magistrates to regulate their common concerns. In 1639 they formed a regular constitution and chose Mr. Haynes their first governor.

Of Saybrook. The Earl of Warwick, one of the Plymouth company, had granted to Lord Say and Seal, and others, a patent, dated March 19th, 1631, of the

territory in New England, extending westward of the river Narraganset forty leagues, in a strait line, near the sea shore, and all the lands of and within that bredth to the South Sea. In October 1635, John Winthrop, the son of the governor of Massachusetts, arrived at Boston, with a commission from Lord Say and others, to erect a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut, to secure the river and territory from the Dutch. His commission constituted him governor of Connecticut for one year. This patent interfered with the plantations already begun on the Connecticut; but it was agreed by the government of Massachusetts and Mr. Winthrop, that the settlers of three towns on the Connecticut, should either leave the place upon full satisfaction, or afford ample room for Mr. Winthrop and his associates.

Of the Settlement of Saybrook. In November 1635, Mr. Winthrop sent two small vessels, with an engineer, workmen and materials to build a fort at the mouth of the Connecticut. The place they selected was on the west bank of the river, and they gave the settlement the name of Saybrook, combining the titles of two of the patentees, Lords Say and Brook. In July 1639, George Fenwick, agent of the patentees, arrived from England, with his family, at Boston, and repaired to Saybrook to prosecute the plantation.

Of the Settlement of New Haven. In July 1637 arrived at Boston, Mr. Davenport, Mr. Eaton and a number of adventurers. After exploring the country westward of Saybrook, they built a hut at a place called Quinnipiac, where a few persons remained during the winter. In April 1638, Mr. Davenport and his company arrived from Boston and began a plantation, which they called New Haven. They immediately devoted a day to religious exercises and entered into a covenant to make the rules of scripture the basis of their civil and religious government. In June 1639, the planters assembled and formed a constitution of government; and in October following, an election

officers was held, in which Mr. Eaton was chosen governor. They purchased the lands of the sachem of the country, and engaged to defend him and his people from the Pequots and Mohawks.

Of the Settlement of Milford and Guilford. In February 1639, a number of persons, mostly from Wethersfield, purchased of the Indians, Wopowage, and began a settlement which they called *Milford*, ten miles west of New Haven. In September of the same year, another company purchased Menunkatuc, and began a plantation, which they called *Guilford*, sixteen miles east of New Haven. The chief men were chosen magistrates and judges to preserve order and distribute justice, until a constitution of government should be framed and established.

Of the Settlement of Fairfield and Stratford. Mr. Ludlow of Windsor, who had traversed the lands west of Quinnipiac, in pursuit of the Pequots in 1637, was so well pleased with their fertility, that he and a few friends purchased a large tract at Unquowa, and began a settlement in 1639, called *Fairfield.* This was augmented by adventurers from Watertown and Concord in Massachusetts. In the same year, a company of men from England and Massachusetts, purchased Cupheeg and Poquonnuc, and began the town of *Stratford.*

Of the Delaware Purchase and Stanford. In 1640, New Haven made a purchase of Rippowams; and of tracts of land on both sides of Delaware bay, on which they erected trading houses, and sent about fifty families to begin a plantation, which in two years was broke up by mortal diseases, and the attacks of the Swedes. They also purchased on Long Island the land now called *Southhold.* In the same year, a violent controversy divided the church in Wethersfield, and one part purchased of New Haven the lands at Rippowams and began the town of *Stanford.*

Of the Purchase of Saybrook. In the year 1640, four distinct colonies were settled and their governments

formed, viz. Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Haven. The plantation at Saybrook remained independent of the government of these colonies, under the direction of Mr. Fenwick. But in December 1644, Mr. Fenwick, as agent for the patentees, sold the fort at Saybrook and its appurtenances, to the Connecticut colony; and engaged to convey all the lands between the fort and Narraganset river, if they should come into his power. In consideration of these grants, Connecticut agreed to pay to Mr. Fenwick, certain fixed duties on articles exported from the river, for ten years. But these duties, in 1646, were commuted for the sum or value of one hundred and eighty pounds, in certain articles of produce, to be paid annually for ten years.

Of the Union of the Colonies. Altho by a mortal pestilence which spread among the natives, about the year 1617 and 18, the tribes between the Narraganset and Penobscot, had been greatly reduced and weakened, and the Pequot tribe had been destroyed by the Connecticut settlers in 1637; yet the country contained numerous tribes, and sufficient to exterminate the infant settlements, if they chose to unite and take up the hatchet. The colonies were also exposed to the Dutch. For the greater security therefore the four colonies united in 1643, in articles of confederation, by which they agreed to succor, aid and support each other, and to maintain the independence of each. Annual meetings of their commissioners were to be held at Boston, Hartford, New Haven and Plymouth in rotation. The charges of wars for the common defense were to be assessed on each colony, according to the number of males between sixteen years old and sixty. Massachusetts was to furnish one hundred soldiers and each of the others forty five; or in that proportion. This union was of great utility to the infant settlements, for thirty five years.

Of the Charter and Union of Connecticut and New

Haven. In the war between the commonwealth of England, under Cromwell and the Dutch, in 1653, Capt. Underhill, by virtue of a commiſſion from England, took poſſeſſion of the Dutch property in Hartford, and the lands were ſold. After the reſtoration of king Charles II, the Connecticut planters, by John Winthrop, their agent, petitioned for a charter, which was granted and dated April 14, 1662. The territory granted and confirmed to them was bounded by Narraganſet Bay on the eaſt, by Maſſachuſetts on the north, on the ſouth, by the ſea, and extended to the ſouth ſea on the weſt. By this charter the ſettlers were incorporated into a body politic, with ample powers of government. But the charter comprehended the New Haven colony and was obtained without their conſent; which occaſioned great uneaſineſs and diſcontent among the New Haven planters, who remonſtrated againſt being brought under the juriſdiction of Connecticut. But in December 1664, the general court of New Haven conſented to the union, and thus was formed the late colony, now ſtate of Connecticut—a union which, by its happy conſequences, has proved how idle were the fears of the people about a conſolodation.

Of the Union of Plymouth with Maſſachuſetts. Maſſachuſetts and Plymouth continued to be diſtinct colonies, until long after the reſtoration of king Charles. The charter of Maſſachuſetts was vacated by legal proceſs in England, in the year 1685; and the colony ſubjected to the arbitrary government of Sir Edmund Andros, until the revolution in favor of king William, when he was ſiezed and ſent to England, and the colony reſumed their old charter government. In 1692, a new charter was obtained, confirming the privileges of the colony, and comprehending the colony of Plymouth in the ſame government. Since that time Plymouth has been a county of the colony, now ſtate, of Maſſachuſetts.

Of the Settlement of Providence. A clergyman, named

Roger Williams, who arrived with the colony of Maſſachuſetts in 1630, became diſguſted and removed to Plymouth, where he aſſiſted the Rev. Mr. Smith, for two years. In conſequence of ſome diſcontent, he left that town and went to Salem, where he was choſen to ſucceed Mr. Shelton. But he was charged by the magiſtrates with holding dangerous doctrins, his ſettlement was oppoſed and he was baniſhed. He firſt went to Seekonk, now Rehoboth, and purchaſed a tract of land of the ſachem; but as this was within the juriſdiction of Plymouth, he was deſired to remove. Accordingly, in the ſpring of 1635, he entered into an agreement with Miantonomy and Canonicus, ſachems of the Narraganſets, fixed his reſidence at Mooſhawſick, and called the place *Providence.*

Of the Settlement of Newport. In conſequence of religious diſſenſions, one John Clark, and a few friends, deſt Boſton by water, ſailed round Cape Cod, and travelled to Providence, where they were entertained by Mr. Williams. Upon application to the Plymouth people, they were adviſed to ſettle at Aquetneck, now Rhode Iſland. In conſequence, they formed an agreement among themſelves for their government, purchaſed or obtained a grant of that iſland from the natives, dated March 24, 1638, and began a ſettlement, on the north eaſt end, at Pocaſſet, oppoſite to the preſent town of Tiverton. In the following year, 1639, a plantation was begun, on the weſterly ſide of the iſland, and called *Newport.* Patuxet was ſettled by William Arnold.

Of the progreſs of Settlements in the Neighborhood. In 1643, Shawmet was purchaſed by one Gorton and ten aſſociates. Gorton had been baniſhed from Rhode Iſland, in 1640; he went to Patuxet, was ſummoned before the court of Maſſachuſetts, and refuſing ſubmiſſion, was taken a priſoner, tried, confined all winter and then baniſhed. Having obtained a grant of Shawmet, he went to England, obtained a confirmation of his grant, and ſettled the town now called Warwick. *Weſterly* was made a townſhip in 1669—Kingſton in

1674—East Greenwich in 1677, and Conanicut in 1678 by the name of James Town.

Of the Government of Providence. The settlers in these plantations, were first governed by a magistrate and assistants, but in 1640, they gave the title of Governor to the Chief Magistrate, and formed an imperfect constitution. In 1643, Mr. Williams went to England and obtained a charter, dated March 14th, 1644, from the commissioners of plantations, under which Rhode Island and Providence Plantations formed a body of laws. In 1651, an attempt was made to alter this constitution, but Williams and Clark were sent to England and prevented it. After the restoration of king Charles II, a new charter was obtained from the Crown, dated July 8th, 1663, by which the people of the colony were incorporated, with ample powers of government, and which still remains the basis of their government.

Of the Settlement of Maine. The shore of that part of America, extending from the river Pascataway, to the Bay of Fundy, had been discovered by many of the first voyagers, both English and French. The grant of the French king to de Monts in 1603, covered the lands from the fortieth to the forty sixth degree of latitude, and of course included Maine; but the French settlements were north and east of this District. Sir John Popham and his company attempted a settlement on an island at the mouth of the Kennebec, in 1607—8, but abandoned the country. The Plymouth Patent also in 1630 contained a grant of a tract of land on the Cobisecontee river, and fifteen miles on each side of the Kennebec, under which a settlement was made for the purposes of trade. A dispute arising between the Plymouth men and some persons belonging to Pascataway, about the right to trade at that place, two men were killed; but the controversy was amicably settled. Under these grants however, some small settlements were made, before any government was established in Maine.

Of the Grant of Maine to Sir Ferdinando Gorges. By a royal patent, dated April 3, 1639, Gorges obtained a grant of all the lands between the Pascataway and Newichawanoc on the south and west and Sagadahoc and Kennebec on the east, extending one hundred and twenty miles north westward into the country, with the islands adjacent, and Capawac, now Martha's Vinyard. By this Charter, the territory received the title of the "Province of Maine," by which it was known till the American Revolution. It is now called the "District of Maine." Gorges neglected this grant; and during the civil wars in England, Massachusetts extended her claim over a part of the district. Gorges died and his grandson sold the property to the Colony of Massachusetts for fourteen hundred pounds sterling. The new Charter of 1692 placed Maine under the Massachusetts government, and it now forms a part of that state.

Of the Grant and Settlement of Maryland. By Charter, dated June 20, 1632, Charles the first granted to Cecilius Calvert, Baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, the lands in America, between Watkins' point in the Chesopeek, and a line from that point to the ocean, on the south; and a line under the fortieth degree of latitude on the Delaware, on the north; which north line was extended to the highest source of the Patomac, and thence by that river to its mouth, and across the bay to Watkins' point—to be held by him and his heirs in fee simple. This tract was named Maryland, and settled at first by Roman Catholics from Ireland.

Of the Progress of Maryland. The government of Maryland continued in the family of Lord Baltimore, until James the II. abdicated the throne, when the Parliament assumed the government. In 1692 the protestant religion was established by law. In 1716 the government was restored to the proprietary, and continued in his family, till the revolution; when his absence was considered as a forfeiture of his rights to the soil and jurisdiction; a convention was called, a consti-

tution formed, and the country erected into an independent state. In 1785, Mr. Harford, the heir of Lord Baltimore, petitioned the legislature for his estate, but without success.

Of the first Settlements on the Delaware. It is difficult to ascertain the precise date of the first plantations on the Delaware. The Dutch and Swedes began settlements there, within a few years after the Dutch West India Company obtained a grant of New Netherlands, and between 1630 and 1637. Both claimed the territory, and a controversy arose between the Dutch governor of New Netherlands, and the Swedish settlers, which subsisted many years. In 1641, a number of families from New Haven began a plantation on that river; but many of them died, the next summer by sickness, and the rest were afterwards driven away by the Dutch and Swedes, who maintained their ground, and the descendants of the latter still live in Pennsylvania.

Of the State of Delaware. The plantations on the Delaware fell within the patent to the Duke of York in 1664; or at least were considered as within its limits. After the grant of Pennsylvania to William Penn in 1681, the Duke of York by deeds dated August 21st and 24th, 1682, granted and released to William Penn all his claims to the lands within William Penn's Patent, and the lands about New Castle, within a circle of twelve miles, and south to the Hoar Kills. By an act of union and an act of settlement between Mr. Penn and the inhabitants, dated December 6, 1682, the counties, on the Delaware, were annexed to the province of Pennsylvania; they however had a separate Assembly, in which the Governor of Pennsylvania presided. At the late revolution, the three counties erected a free independent state, by the name of *Delaware*, and formed a constitution.

Of the Grant to the Duke of York. After the *English* conquered New Netherlands from the Dutch in *1664*, *King* Charles the second, by patent dated the

twelfth day of March, 1664, granted to his brother James, Duke of York, a tract of land in America, beginning at Nova Scotia and extending along the coast to Pemaquid and to the head of that river; thence to the Kennebec and northward to the river of Canada; also Long Island and Hudson's River, and all the lands from the west side of Connecticut River to the east side of Delaware Bay, with Martha's Vinyard and Nantucket. To this territory the Duke gave the name of New York. The boundaries are hardly to be understood; but this grant of lands before granted to others on the Connecticut, occasioned many and warm controversies between the colonies of New York, Connecticut, New Hampshire and Vermont, some of which lasted for more than a century.

Of the Grant of New Jersey. The Duke of York, by deed of release, dated June 24th, 1664, sold and confirmed to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret, their heirs and assigns, all that tract of land to the westward of Long Island and Manhattan, between the ocean and the Hudson on the east and the Delaware on the west, from Cape May to the north branch of the Delaware in forty one degrees and forty minutes of latitude, by the name of New Cesaria or *New Jersey*. Under this grant settlements were soon begun, and Phillip Carteret was appointed the first governor.

Of the Progress of New Jersey. The proprietors of New Jersey made grants of land, while their shares were undivided; but by deed quintipartite, dated July 1, 1676, the proprietors divided this tract of land—Sir George Carteret taking the eastern half, and one Byllinge and others, the purchasers under Lord Berkeley, taking the other half. The dividing line was agreed to be a strait line from a point on the east side of Little Egg Harbor, to the northern most branch of the Delaware. This line was not run for many years, and thence arose controversies and riots between the claimants under different proprietors; thence also the distinction between East and West Jersey. These

diſputes laſted till the late revolution, when New Jerſey became an independent ſtate; and were not cloſed, till after the peace of 1783.

Of the Charter of Carolina. In the year 1663, the Earl of Clarendon and ſeven others obtained from Charles the ſecond, a patent of the lands in America lying between the thirty firſt and thirty ſixth degrees of north latitude. Two years after, this grant was confirmed and the limits extended from the twenty ninth degree to thirty ſix and a half, and between theſe parallels, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. Of this tract of land, the grantees were conſtituted abſolute lords and proprietors.—For the government of the country, they procured a form of conſtitution to be drawn up by the celebrated Locke, which appeared well on paper, but was not practicable nor convenient, and was therefore not eſtabliſhed.

Of the Settlement of Carolina. In 1664, the proprietors of Carolina ſent Capt. Sayle to explore the coaſt; who, being driven by a ſtorm among the Bahamas, examined the iſland of Providence; then ſailed along the American coaſt, and made a favorable report of the country. In conſequence of his information, the proprietors ſolicited and obtained a patent of all the iſlands between the twenty ſecond and twenty ſeventh degrees of north latitude, which included the Bahamas. In 1670, Capt. Sayle, with a ſmall company, arrived at Port Royal, and begun a ſettlement; but he ſoon fell a victim to diſeaſe. In 1671, the ſettlers removed to the banks of Aſhley river, and begun what has been called Old Charleſtown. In 1680, they begun the preſent city of Charleſtown. The firſt ſettlers had to ſtruggle with extreme hardſhips and diſtreſs, from want, from the ſavages and from the diſeaſes incident to the climate.

Of the Progreſs of Carolina. The new ſettlement was augmented, about the year 1672 or 3, by a number of the Dutch inhabitants from New York, who left that colony, after it came into poſſeſſion of the

Engliſh. Theſe formed a ſettlement on the ſouth weſt of Aſhley river, called James Town; but they afterward diſperſed into other parts of the country.

A few years after, a conſiderable number of proteſtants in conſequence of the perſecutions which followed the revocation of the edict of Nantz in 1685, left France and ſettled in Carolina. In 1699, a tremendous hurricane brot ſuch an inundation upon the town, that the inhabitants were obliged to ſeek ſhelter in the upper ſtories of their houſes. A fire broke out and deſtroyed moſt of the town. The ſmall pox raged the ſame year; and finally ſo mortal a peſtilential bilious fever, that almoſt half the people died. Theſe calamities came near to break up the colony.

Of the State of Carolina. In 1728, a very hot ſummer was followed by a dreadful hurricane, which laid the town of Charleſtown under water, damaged the wharves and houſes, and daſhed to pieces almoſt every ſhip in the harbor. This was followed by a peſtilential bilious fever which deſtroyed great numbers of the inhabitants, and it was hardly poſſible to find people to tend the ſick and bury the dead.

In this year, the proprietors of Carolina, except Lord Carteret, ſold all their property to the crown of England, and ſurrendered the government. Until this time, the governors of Carolina had been appointed by the proprietors; but from this period, the king appointed the governor and council, as in many other colonies. This form of government continued till the revolution, when Carolina became an independent ſtate, and formed a conſtitution.

Of the Grant to William Penn. Charles the ſecond, by charter dated March 4, 1681, granted to William Penn a tract of land in America, extending from a line twelve miles northward of Newcaſtle to the forty third degree of latitude, and from the Delaware weſtward five degrees of longitude. Under this grant, he took poſſeſſion of the country, purchaſed the ſoil of the natives, introduced a colony of his friends and called the

tract *Pennsylvania.* He parcelled out his lands at moderate rents, gave free toleration to all religious sects, and thus invited a rapid settlement of the province. The property continued in his heirs until the revolution, when the legislature assumed the government and territorial rights, made a compensation to the proprietor in money, and Pennsylvania became an independent state.

Of the Settlement of North Carolina. The people of Virginia began the first plantations within Carolina, by gradually extending their settlements to the southward of James Town. As early as the middle of the 17th century, they had formed settlements along the Chowan river and Albemarle sound; and falling within the limits of the Carolina grant to the Earl of Clarendon and others, in 1663, the proprietors authorized Governor Berkeley to take them under his protection and government. Accordingly, one Drummond was appointed their Governor. In 1665, Sir J. Yeaman with a company from Barbadoes, formed a settlement, on Cape Fear river. These were the first settlements within North Carolina.

Of the Settlement of Georgia. In the year 1732, a number of benevolent persons in England, formed a design of beginning a plantation in America, for the purpose of furnishing means of subsistence to many needy people; and obtained an act of the crown dated June 9th, making them a corporation for carrying into effect that object. In November following, one hundred and sixteen persons embarked for America under General Oglethorpe, one of the trustees. They arrived early in 1733, at Charlestown, and with the aid of Governor Johnson, repaired to the river Savanna, on the bank of which they began the town of that name. The territory was called *Georgia*, from the name of the king.

Of the Progress of Georgia. The colony was increased by further emigrations from Scotland and Germany; but numerous difficulties attended the first settlements,

and the truſtees weary with the complaints of the ſettlers, and not ſatisfied with the condition of the colony, ſurrendered their charter to the crown in 1752. From which time Georgia was under a royal government, the governor being appointed by the king, until the revolution, when it became an independent ſtate.

Of the Motives of the firſt Settlers of America. The Spaniards who firſt came to America, were ſtimulated by the deſire and expectation of finding the precious metals, gold and ſilver. So powerful was this paſſion for gold, that the firſt adventurers encountered every poſſible hardſhip and danger in ſearch of it, and ſacrificed millions of the wretched natives, whom they compelled to work in the mines. Very different were the motives of the ſettlers of New England. Theſe were diſſenters from the church of England, called *puritans*, from their rigid principles and diſciplin, who ſuffered perſecution for their nonconformity, and determined to ſeek peace and liberty of conſcience in a wilderneſs. A ſimilar motive actuated the ſettlers of Pennſylvania, and ſome of the adventurers to Maryland and Carolina.

Of the Circumſtances favorable to the Settlers. One of the moſt remarkable events, favorable to the firſt ſettlements, was the great deſtruction of the Indians by a peſtilential diſeaſe, reſembling the bilious plague, which raged in the years 1617 and 18 among all the tribes between the Narraganſet and the Penobſcot, and almoſt depopulated the country. Many villages were ſtripped of all their inhabitants; and in many places, our forefathers found the bones of ſuch as had been left unburied. This mortality weakened the ſtrength of the natives, and probably rendered the ſurvivors leſs ferocious and hoſtile. To this may be added the deſtruction of the natives by the ſmall pox in 1633.

Another favorable circumſtance was, the hoſtility that exiſted between different tribes; which, in caſe of a war, enabled our anceſtors to make uſe of one tribe for the extermination of another.

SECTION VII.

INDIAN WARS.

Of the Massacre in Virginia.

IN the year 1622, the settlers in Virginia lost three hundred and forty nine of their number by a sudden massacre. The Indians had, for some time before, lived on very familiar terms, with the English; but in the spring of that year, they secretly plotted to exterminate the colony. The direct occasion was this. A young Indian Chief had murdered one Morgan, an Englishman, for some toys which he was carrying to sell to the Indians. The English attempted to seize him, and he making an obstinate resistance, was killed. To revenge his death, a conspiracy was formed, and on the 22d of March, the Indians fell on the inhabitants who were unprepared and killed all they found. This compelled the people to abandon most of their plantations and retire to James Town. The consequence of this massacre was a furious and unrelenting war, in which the savages were slain without mercy.

Of the principal Indian Tribes in New England. The settlers at Plymouth and Massachusetts had no trouble with the Indians in their neighborhood, for many years. But westward of the Narraganset Bay, lived powerful tribes, which had not been reduced by the malignant fever. These were the Narraganscts who possessed the country between the river of that name and the Paucatuc, which territory is now a part of Rhode Island —The Pequots, a warlike nation, inhabiting the territory between Paucatuc and the Connecticut; now a part of Connecticut, by the names of Stonington and Groton—The Mohegans who resided on the west of the river Mohegan, and owned the land, now a part of New London and Norwich. Of *these the* Pequots were the most warlike, ferocious, *and formidable* to the other tribes, with whom they *were often* at war.

Of the Occaſion of the Pequot War. In the year 1634, the Pequots killed Capt. Stone and all his companions, being ſeven in number, who were bound up the Connecticut, merely for compelling two of the nation to be their guides. In 1636, Capt. Oldham was killed at Block Iſland, where he went to trade. Some others were killed the ſame year; and in April 1637 a party of Indians went up the Connecticut in canooes, and ſurprizing a number of perſons in Wethersfield as they were going into the field, killed nine and took two young women priſoners. Theſe murders called upon the inhabitants to take meaſures for their ſafety, and it was determined to make war on the Pequots.

Of the Beginning and Progreſs of the War. The murder of Capt. Oldham induced Maſſachuſetts to ſend ninety men under General Endicott to reduce the Indians on Block Iſland, and then to demand of the Pequots, the murderers of Capt. Stone, and a thouſand fathom of wampum, by way of ſatisfaction, with ſome of their children as hoſtages. In October 1636, they landed on the iſland and the Indians fled, but their wigwams were all deſtroyed. The party then ſailed to the Pequot country, where they could not effect their purpoſes, and after burning a number of huts, they returned. This expedition from Maſſachuſetts gave offenſe to the ſettlers at Plymouth and Connecticut; who complained to the governor that it would exaſperate the ſavages, without being of any uſe towards ſubduing them. But the continued murders of the Pequots, induced all the colonies, the next year, to unite in an expedition againſt them.

Of the Deſtruction of the Pequots. In April 1637, the Connecticut people ſent letters to the government of Maſſachuſetts, expreſſing their diſſatisfaction at the expedition of the former year; but urging a continuance of the war to a more deciſive concluſion. Preparations accordingly were made in all the colonies.

But Connecticut was beforehand in executing the design; for early in May, Capt. Mason with ninety men from Hartford, Wethersfield and Windsor, went down the river, being joined by Capt. Underhill at Saybrook and by Uncas, sachem of the Mohegans, the enemy of the Pequots. Sailing round to the Narraganset shore, they landed, and being joined by five hundred Indians of that tribe, who wished to see the Pequots exterminated, they marched by moon light to the Pequot fort, and attacked it by surprize. Capt. Mason entered, set fire to the huts, and slew or took most of the Indians, amounting to six or seven hundred, with the loss of only two of his own men. Those who escaped, fled and took refuge in a swamp, now in Fairfield. A body of men, being joined by the troops from Massachusetts, under Capt. Stoughton, pursued them, killed some, took others and dispersed the rest—so that the tribe became extinct.

Of Philip's War. In the year 1675, Philip, sachem of the Wampanoags, who lived at Mount Hope, in the present town of Bristol, in Rhode Island, began a war the most general and destructive ever sustained by the infant colonies. It is supposed that he was induced to undertake it, by a desire of exterminating the English. The immediate cause was this—An Indian had made a discovery of his plots, for which Philip caused him to be slain. The murderers were tried and executed by the English. Philip soon commenced his hostile attacks on the English, and by his agents, drew into the war most of the tribes in New England.

Of the Progress of the War. On the 18th of July, the English forces attacked the Indians at Pocasset Neck, now Tiverton, drove them into a swamp, but were obliged to retreat with the loss of fifteen men. At the close of the month, Brookfield was burnt, except one house which was defended by the people, until they had relief. After which Deerfield was burnt. Northfield was abandoned to the savages, after a num-

ber of its inhabitants had been killed; Capt. Beers attempting to succor the town being slain with twenty of his men. The 18th of September was a fatal day; for Capt. Lathrop, and eighty men, the flower of Essex county, while guarding some carts which were conveying corn from Derfield to Hadley, were surprized and almost every man slain. This melancholy event was soon followed by the destruction of a considerable part of Springfield. Hadley was assaulted, but relieved by Major Treat of Connecticut.

Of the Attacks on the Narraganſets. The English had endeavored to secure the friendship of the Narraganſets; and to prevent them from joining Philip, had formed a treaty with them July 15, 1675. But it was well known that they secretly aided the hostile Indians, and it was determined to reduce them by a winter expedition. For this purpose, about a thousand men under Governor Winslow, marched late in December, wading in deep snow, and attacked the fort of the enemy. The Narraganſets were furnished with muskets, and made havoc with the assailants, especially among the officers who first entered the fort, most of whom were killed. Six captains and eighty men were killed; one hundred and fifty were wounded; and all suffered incredibly from frozen limbs and other hardships. But the success was complete; two or three hundred of the Indians were slain, all their huts burnt, and the country ravaged.

Of the Progress of the War in 1676. About the 10th of February a party of savages burnt Lancaster, and killed or took prisoners forty of the inhabitants, among which was the family of the minister, Mr. Rowlandson. Ten days after, they attacked Medfield early in the morning and so suddenly, that, although garrisoned, they burnt nearly one half of the town, and slew many of the inhabitants. On the 26th of March, Capt. Pierce and fifty men from Plymouth were slain near Pawtuxet. A great part of Marlborough was burnt on the same day, Warwick was laid in ashes on the 17th of the

same month. About forty houses and thirty barns were burnt on the 28th following in Rehoboth; and the next day Providence was attacked and thirty houses burnt. Many other places suffered in a less degree.

Of the Success of the English. The tide of victory now began to turn. In April, Capt. Denison of Stonington collected forty seven volunteers and a party of friendly Indians, attacked the savages, took their sachem prisoner, and killed forty five without the loss of a man. This sachem called Cononchet, was the son of Miantinomo, an insolent chief of the Narragansets, and was an unrelenting enemy. He was beheaded at Stonington. Capt. Denison repeated his expeditions and killed many of the savages. The latter however continued to kill and destroy, wherever they came—and many towns suffered a loss of people and property. Capt. Wadsworth with fifty men, between Sudbury and Marlborough, was decoyed into a wood, and slain with almost all his men. But the English were very active in hunting them and finally drove Philip to his former residence at Mount Hope, where he was killed by a shot from a friendly Indian under Capt. Church on the 12th of August 1676. This fortunate event put an end to the war.

Of the Effects of this War. The colonies in New England, in the year 1675, contained from thirty five to forty thousand inhabitants, and their militia between seven and eight thousand men. Of these about six hundred fell in the war, besides many women and children. Twelve or thirteen towns were destroyed and many others lost a part of their buildings. Six hundred buildings, mostly dwelling houses, were consumed; many cattle killed, and a heavy debt contracted. Connecticut suffered less than the other colonies, and it is remarkable that the Mohegans, from the first settlement of the colony, remained in friendship with the English, and were very useful to them in their wars. In consequence of their fidelity, they have been protected by the government; their property has

been ſecured to them and is ſtill in poſſeſſion of the tribe.

Of the War in King William's Reign. On the acceſs of William, prince of Orange, to the throne of England, a war broke out between England and France, and as Canada then belonged to France, the French inſtigated the Indians to hoſtilities, againſt the colonies. A body of French and Indians from Montreal, attacked Schenectady in the night of Feb. 8, 1690, when the unſuſpecting inhabitants were at reſt, killed ſixty and took twenty priſoners. They alſo ſet fire to the houſes, killed moſt of the cattle and horſes, and marched off with the remainder of the horſes laden with plunder. Thoſe of the people who eſcaped fled naked towards Albany, amidſt the ſnow, in a ſevere night, twenty of whom loſt their limbs by the froſt—The horror and ſufferings of the inhabitants were beyond the powers of deſcription.

Of the Indian Depredations in New Hampſhire and Maine. The inhabitants in the eaſtern part of New England had ſuffered greatly in Phllip's war; but were ſeverely haraſſed and deſolated from the year 1690 to 1698. The brave and venerable Major Waldron and twenty two others were taken by ſurprize and ſlain and their houſes burnt. The plantation at Salmon Falls in New Hampſhire, was ſurprized and burnt on the 18th of March 1690; thirty men were ſlain and the women and children were made captives. The fort and ſettlement at Caſco were deſtroyed in May following. Continual murders of the people, and deſtruction of buildings, alarms and diſtreſſes induced the inhabitants to abandon the moſt defenſeleſs parts of the country and retire to garriſoned towns. Nor did theſe calamities ceaſe, till the peace between France and England in 1698, when Frontenac, the French commander in Canada, ceaſed to inſtigate the ſavages.

Of the War in Queen Ann's Reign. In 1702 war was proclaimed between England and France, and the American colonies were again expoſed to Indian ra-

ages. Deerfield was surprized and burnt and most of the inhabitants carried captive Feb. 28, 1704. New Hampshire and especially Maine was exposed to the inroads of ferocious savages, who continued every year, to alarm or massacre the people, and burn their dwellings. The peace of Utrecht, signed March 30th, 1713, put an end to these calamities, and from that time the growing population of New England secured the inhabitants from similar distresses. Wonderful was the patience, fortitude, self denial and bravery of our ancestors, in settling, cultivating and defending this goodly heritage which we enjoy!

Of the Title of our Ancestors to the Soil of this Country. The inhabitants which our fathers found in America, tho savage tribes, which subsisted principally by hunting and fishing, were considered as the rightful owners of the soil, and treated as such. Altho the English first landed on their territory without their consent, yet they were careful to acquire a just title to the lands by fair purchase from the possessors. Our ancestors bought almost all the lands for a valuable consideration, tho generally small; and the deeds are registered among the records of the colonies. Had it not been for the French in Canada, who during the wars between England and France, instigated the savages to seek the blood and property of the English, it is probable our forefathers would have escaped most of the wars with the Indians, and their distressing consequences. The power of the French in Canada to injure the colonies, was happily destroyed by the reduction of Quebec by the forces under General Wolf in 1758, and the conquest of the whole province of Canada.

Of the Division among the different Tribes. When this country was first planted, the Indians, like other nations, were often at war among themselves. The Pequots were terrible to their neighbors; and the Mohegans and Narraganſets joyfully assisted the English to exterminate them. In Philip's war, the English were assisted also by a number of friendly Indians.

e nations west of Albany were very useful in the settlers to check the incursions of the Canada nder French influence. The first settlements olina, which might have been easily destroyed, ecured and left to thrive, by means of a bloody tween the two neighboring tribes, which nearly nished both. While we may rejoice at such di- which were favorable to our ancestors, in the state of the colonies, yet we are to learn from the great danger to a people from disunion. ig renders the conquest of a country so easy, as n and controversies among the inhabitants.

the War against the Tuscaroras. In the year the Tuscaroras, a considerable nation of Indians frontiers of North Carolina, with some other made war on the infant settlements in that col- nd threatened it with extirpation. Their first was kept so secret, that they fell on the unsus- g planters by surprize, killing all without mercy. Roanoke one hundred and thirty seven persons ain in one night, among whom were most of ermans who had then lately arrived. Governor n of South Carolina, as soon as he heard of this ent Col. Barnwell against the savages at the head hundred men, and a body of Indians of other Marching thro a hideous wilderness, Col. Barn- rrounded the Indians in their town, slew many n and compelled the remainder to ask for peace. of the Tuscaroras as escaped, abandoned their y, settled among the Five Nations; and added a ribe, so that they afterwards were called the *Six* ns.

the Conspiracy of the Yamasees. The southern of South Carolina, along the Savanna, was in- d by a numerous and powerful tribe of Indians, Yamasees. These lived, for many years, in ship with the Carolinians; but in 1715, instiga- was believed, by the Spaniards of Florida, they d a *general* conspiracy of all the neighboring

tribes, to deſtroy the Engliſh ſettlements. Not than ſix or ſeven thouſand warriors of the Congar Catawbas, Cherokees, Yamaſees and other tribes engaged in this plot. On the 15th of April, at break, they began their horrid work of maſſacre torture, and ninety perſons who went to Pocota one of their towns to trade, or were in the neighbo plantations, fell victims to the firſt attack. The Ind approached within a few miles of Charleſtown, deſt ing all the people who had not eſcaped to that tc

Of the Defeat of the Indians. At that time Cha town could muſter but twelve hundred men fit to arms; but Governor Craven took vigorous meaſu laying an embargo, proclaiming martial law, and curing an act of aſſembly, authorizing him to imp men, ſtores and amunition, he marched againſt ſavages, and found the main body of them in t great camp, at a place called the Saltcatchers. The ſharp and bloody battle enſued, but the Carolinians pulſed the barbarians, and cloſely purſuing them, di them beyond the Savanna river, where they were ceived by the Spaniards. The colony being thus livered from moſt imminent danger, the troops retu ed and were received with unbounded joy. ' ſavages remained vindictive and frequently made curſions into the Engliſh plantations, exerciſing th uſual barbarities; but never was Carolina again exp ed to equal danger.

SECTION VIII.

Political Events.

Of the political Hiſtory of the Colonies.

THE charters granted to the firſt planters of Ne England, gave them ample powers of gover ment. The freemen elected their own governo

councils and repreſentatives; by whom all laws were enacted, ſubject however to be abrogated by the king and council, if found repugnant to the laws of England. But the numerous emigrations to America ſoon alarmed the Engliſh government, and repeated orders were iſſued by the king to reſtrain ſuch emigrations. Many jealouſies and controverſies alſo aroſe among thoſe concerned in the plantations, and numerous complaints were made of the diſorderly conduct of the ſettlers, their encroachments on other patents, and their arbitrary proceedings. The principal author of theſe complaints againſt the Maſſachuſetts colony was John Mason. In 1634 the king and council, had been induced, by theſe complaints, to iſſue an order requiring the colony to ſend their charter to England. On conſultation, the governor and magiſtrates gave anſwer that this could not be done, without the direction of the general court, which was to be held in September following.

Of the Surrender of the Patent of the Plymouth Company. The council of Plymouth, being diſſatisfied with the proceedings of ſome of the company, and eſpecially with the Maſſachuſetts colony, which, as they alledged, had extended their juriſdiction too far, and rendered themſelves independent of the company, reſigned their grant to the crown by an act dated June 15, 1635. In 1636 the king iſſued an order of proceſs againſt Maſſachuſetts, demanding the authority by which the colony exerciſed the powers of government, and tho not ſerved on any perſon in New England, judgment was rendered againſt the colony. In 1638, April 8, the king and council ſent an expreſs order that the colony ſhould deliver up their patent. This was not obeyed, but an anſwer returned with a petition, ſtating that the proceſs had not been ſerved on them; that they had ſettled under the authority of their patent; and if obliged to reſign it, they muſt remove to ſome *other place* and the country would fall into

the hands of the Dutch or French. No answer was returned, and the troubles in England prevented a further demand.

Of the Plan of a General Government. Gorges and Mason, the enemies of the Massachusetts colony, were the principal instruments in procuring the surrender of the Plymouth patent. Their plan was to procure a surrender or repeal of all the patents, and form the whole northern part of America into twelve provinces, with a general governor over the whole. This plan was nearly matured in the year 1635; but by the death of Mason, the winter following, it was frustrated. The colonies however were held in a state of alarm for many years, apprehending a loss of their patents, and a subjection to the arbitrary proceedings of the king and the high commission court.

Of the Dissolution of the Charter of Massachusetts. The controversies between the heirs of Gorges and Mason, and the Massachusetts colony, respecting the boundaries of their patents, gave rise to many complaints against the colony; and in 1676, Edward Randolph was sent from England, by the king's authority, to inquire into the state of the colonies and the grounds of complaint. The colony sent agents to England; the parties were heard; Gorges was secured in his claim to Maine, and the colony purchased his property. The claims of Mason were also adjusted. But Randolph made continual complaints against the colony for violating the laws of trade, coining money and the like. The colony appointed agents to make answer to these complaints; but without success. The king and council were prejudiced against the colony, and in 1683 issued an order demanding that the colony should answer to the charges against them. After deliberation, the representatives declined to appear and make defense. Of course in 1685, judgment was rendered against the colony, and their charter was declared to be vacated.

Of the Proceedings against the other Colonies. Similar

orders were issued against other colonies. Rhode Island assembly submitted to his majesty's pleasure, and agreed to surrender their charter which was accepted in 1684. Plymouth, expecting to be compelled to resign their patent, sent a copy of it to the king, with an address full of expressions of loyalty, and praying for the grant of a charter. No further proceedings were had against Plymouth. In July 1685, process was issued by the king and council against Connecticut. In July 1686, the assembly of the colony agreed upon an address to his majesty, in which they besought him to recal the writ against them, intreated his pardon for any faults in their government, and requested the continuance of the charter.

Of the singular Preservation of the Charter of Connecticut. When the writ of quo warranto arrived, Connecticut sent Mr. Whiting as an agent to negociate for the preservation of their colonial charter and rights. But in vain; for the king and council had determined to vacate all the charters, and unite the colonies to the crown, under a governor of royal appointment. Sir Edmond Andros was appointed the first governor general over New England and arrived at Boston in December 1686. Soon after his arrival he wrote to Connecticut to resign their charter; but without success. In October 1687, while the assembly was in session, Governor Andros arrived at Hartford with a company of troops, and demanded a surrender of the charter. While the principal officers of government were debating with Andros, on the subject, and many people were collected, a garment was suddenly thrown over the candles, by which they were extinguished, and the charter, which lay on the table was siezed by Mr. Wadsworth of Hartford, conveyed away and secreted within a large hollow tree, still standing before the house of Mr. Wyllys.

Of the subsequent Proceedings in Connecticut and Massachusetts. The charter was secured, but Governor *Andros proceeded* to take formal possession of the gov-

ernment of Connecticut and annexed it to Massachusetts; appointing officers civil and military, and making most flattering protestations of his good intentions. But he soon threw off the mask, and exercised arbitrary power, in the most unbounded manner. The weight of his despotism fell, with most severity, on Massachusetts and Plymouth. Happily the reign of tyranny was of short duration; for the arbitrary proceedings of his royal master, king James, had rendered him so odious in England, that he was obliged to flee from the kingdom. William, prince of Orange, who was invited to the throne of England, landed there in November 1688, and delivered the nation. Upon the first news of this revolution, the inhabitants of Boston and the neighboring towns, siezed the castle and arrested Governor Andros. This was on the 18th of April 1689. As soon as William and Mary were proclaimed king and queen, the colonies resumed their charter governments, by authority from the crown, and Andros embarked for England.

Of the Colonies after the Revolution. Connecticut obtained from the most able lawyers in England, an opinion that the colony not having surrendered the charter under seal, and no judgment being entered on record, the charter was not invalidated; the former government was therefore re-established: But the charter of Massachusetts having been vacated, the king granted a new charter, in which the right of appointing the governor and council was vested in the crown. Sir William Phips was appointed the first governor, and arrived with the new charter in May 1692. Plymouth urged for a separate charter, but could not obtain one; and it was a question for some time, whether it should be annexed to New York or to Massachusetts. Finally it was annexed to the latter.

Of another Attempt against the Colonies by Governor Dudley. Near the close of the reign of king William, Governor Dudley had formed a new design of procuring all the charters in America to be vacated and be

colonies to be united to the crown. Early in the reign of queen Ann, who aſcended the throne in 1702, a bill for this purpoſe was actually laid before parliament. The reaſons alledged for the meaſure were, that the colonies violated the laws of trade, defrauded the revenue, harbored pirates and the like. Sir Henry Aſhurſt, the agent of Connecticut, remonſtrated againſt the meaſure, contradicted the charges againſt the colonies, and repreſented that ſuch a plan would be injurious to their rights, and ruinous to their proſperity. Happily the bill was not paſſed, and all the attempts of Dudley were fruſtrated.

Of the Controverſies of the New England Colonies with the Dutch. In a few years after the Engliſh came to America, a conteſt aroſe between them and the Dutch at Manhattan, reſpecting the lands on the Connecticut. Both parties were pleaſed with the fertility of the lands; both claimed the ſoil and both intended to gain poſſeſſion of it. But the Dutch had purchaſed a few acres of land and planted a fort on it in 1633, before the Engliſh had attempted a plantation. The Plymouth men however arrived and built a trading houſe in a week or two after the Dutch had got poſſeſſion. Notwithſtanding the enmity between the Engliſh and Dutch, the latter were ſuffered to keep poſſeſſion, for more than twenty years, when a war breaking out, the Dutch fort was taken, and the lands confiſcated, in 1654.

Of the Diſputes relating to Long Iſland and Delaware. About the year 1640, ſome of the Connecticut and New Haven planters, purchaſed large tracts of land on Long Iſland, and began ſettlements. The New Haven colony alſo made ſettlements on the Delaware. The Dutch, wiſhing to monopolize the trade, determined to reſtrain the Engliſh from extending their ſettlements, and in 1642 invaded and broke up the plantations on Long Iſland and the Delaware. The Engliſh complained alſo that the Dutch ſold arms and am-

unition to the Indians—and for many years mutual accuſations paſſed between the parties. In 1650, Mr. Stuyveſant, the Dutch governor went to Hartford, being invited to an amicable agreement with the commiſſioners of the colonies. He there made claim to the lands on the weſt of the Connecticut by grant and by purchaſe from the natives and demanded a ſurrender of them. The commiſſioners replied and manifeſted their title by charter, purchaſe and poſſeſſion.

Of the Reſult of the Conference. After much altercation, the parties agreed to ſubmit their claims and differences to arbitrators, who, on the 19th of Sept. 1650, came to the following determination. That as moſt of the complaints and ſubjects of diſpute aroſe under the preceding governor of Manhattan, Mr. Kieft, they would not come to a full concluſion, until Mr. Stuyveſant had made a repreſentation of the facts to the company in Holland under whom he acted. With reſpect to the claims of New Haven and the Dutch to the land on the Delaware, then called South River, they declined a deciſion for want of evidence on the part of the Dutch. But they determined that the boundary between the Engliſh and Dutch, on Long Iſland, ſhould be a ſtrait line acroſs the iſland from the weſternmoſt part of Oyſter Bay; and on the main land, a line running from the weſt ſide of Greenwich Bay, northerly twenty miles into the country, provided it ſhould not come within ten miles of the Hudſon. The Dutch were permitted to hold their fort and lands in Hartford, and the remainder of the lands on both ſides of the Connecticut, was adjudged to the Engliſh.

Of the ſubſequent Diſputes with the Dutch. After this award, the New Haven people attempted again to eſtabliſh themſelves on the Delaware; but they were prevented by the Dutch, who arreſted the meſſengers ſent to give notice of this reſolution to the governor. The New Haven people petitioned the commiſſioners of the United Colonies to redreſs their injuries and main-

tain their rights. The commissioners remonstrated to the Dutch governor, but without success. In 1653, the commissioners held an extraordinary meeting, on account of information that the Dutch had formed a plot against the English, and were instigating the Indians to commit hostilities. The evidence of such a plot convinced all the commissioners, except those of Massachusetts, who opposed a war with the Dutch. Stuyvesant denied the plot and offered to prove his innocence. But no satisfaction was given, and men were raised for an expedition against the Dutch. The next spring, in 1654, orders were received from Cromwell to treat the Dutch as enemies, and a fleet was sent with forces to act against them in America. But the defeat of the Dutch fleet under Admiral Tromp in Europe, put an end to the war, and little was done in America, except the taking of the Dutch fort at Hartford.

Of the Disputes after Connecticut obtained a Charter. After the restoration of the royal government in England, in 1660, Connecticut obtained a charter which covered the colony of New Haven and extended her limits to the South Sea. This extension of her claims westward on Long Island and in West Chester, in consequence of this charter, alarmed governor Stuyvesant, who sent agents to Connecticut in 1663, to treat with the legislature on the subject. The assembly resolved, for the sake of peace, to forbear the exercise of authority on the west end of Long Island, provided the Dutch should not molest the English plantations, which petitioned to be under the government of Connecticut, and which had been received. About the same time, the assembly authorized Thomas Pell to purchase of the Indians the land between West Chester and the Hudson, as far south as Haerlem Creek. The patent to the Duke of York of the Dutch possessions in America, granted March 12, 1664, was followed by an armament under Col. Nichols, which reduced them all to subjection to the crown of England

and releaſed the colonies from further apprehenſions from the Dutch.

Of the Boundaries between Connecticut and New York. After Col. Nichols had ſubdued New Netherlands, and given it the preſent name, *New York*, he and his aſſociates, appointed by the crown, met with the agents appointed by Connecticut, and on the fifth of December, 1664, determined the boundary of their reſpective juriſdiction to be, a line beginning on the eaſt ſide of Maroneck river or creek, at the place where the ſalt water meets the freſh, at high water, and thence north norweſt to the line of Maſſachuſetts. They determined alſo the whole of Long Iſland to be under the juriſdiction of the Duke of York, according to his charter; ſo that the New England colonies loſt the poſſeſſion of that iſland.

Of the Proceedings after the War with the Dutch. In March 1672, king Charles declared war againſt the States of Holland, and in the following ſummer, a Dutch force arrived at New York and took poſſeſſion of it. The inhabitants of Delaware ſubmitted to the Dutch, but the colony of Connecticut took meaſures of defenſe, and oppoſed the demands of the Dutch who required the people of Long Iſland to ſubmit to their government, and take an oath of allegiance to the States of Holland. The Dutch attempted to ſubdue the iſland and ſome of the weſtern towns of the colony, but were repelled. In February 1674, peace took place between the powers at war; by which New York was reſtored to the Engliſh. To prevent all diſpute, about his title, the Duke of York took a new patent of his territories in America, dated June 29, 1674, and committed the government of them to Sir Edmond Androſs.

Of Androſs's Proceedings towards Connecticut. Sir Edmond, by virtue of the patent to the Duke of York, claimed the land on the weſt ſide of the Connecticut, to the prejudice of the Connecticut charter, and in violation of the agreement of 1664. To enforce his

claims, he attempted in 1675 to take the fort at Saybrook; and after making a ſhow of his force, he requeſted a conference, which was granted. Attempting to read his commiſſion and the Duke's patent, Capt. Bull, who commanded the fort, forbid the reading, and directed his clerk to read the proteſt of Connecticut againſt his proceedings. At this manly conduct Sir Edmond was ſo much pleaſed that on hearing the officer's name to be *Bull*, he declared his "horns ought to be tipped with ſilver." Finding the colony reſolute, he gave up his deſign and ſailed to Long Iſland.

Of the final Settlement of the Line between Connecticut and New York. In 1683, Col. Dungan arrived at New York, in character of governor. In November, the General Court of Connecticut appointed a committee to congratulate him on his arrival, and ſettle the boundary between the two governments. On the 28th of November of the ſame year, the agents came to an agreement, that the line of partition ſhould begin at Byram river, at a point called Lyon's point, where that river falls into the ſound, and run northerly at not leſs than twenty miles diſtance from the Hudſon, to the ſouth line of Maſſachuſetts. This agreement was confirmed by the legiſlature of Connecticut in May 1684, the lines were in part run and ratified February 24, 1685; by governor Dungan and governor Treat. This agreement was confirmed by king William, March 28, 1700. Further progreſs was made in running the lines in 1725, but the buſineſs was not completed, till May 14, 1731, when the lines were eſtabliſhed, as they now exiſt. In this ſettlement New York ceded to Connecticut a tract of land on the ſound, called Greenwich, which was ſettled by Engliſh people who choſe to be annexed to Connecticut; and in return, Connecticut ceded to New York ſixty thouſand acres of much better land, called the Oblong.

Of the Line between Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut. The *ſouth line of* Maſſachuſetts, according to charter *runs weſt from* a point three miles ſouth of the mo

ſoutherly branch of Charles River and every part of it; and the north line of Connecticut is the ſouth line of Maſſachuſetts. When Mr. Pynchon ſettled Springfield, and the firſt plantations were made in Connecticut, in 1635, it was not known whether the territory would fall within the limits of Maſſachuſetts or not. But Mr. Pynchon at firſt conſidered himſelf as belonging to the juriſdiction of the Connecticut plantations. In 1642, Maſſachuſetts employed two ſurveyors, Woodward and Saffery, to run the line between the colonies. Theſe pretended to aſcertain the ſouth line on Charles River and then ſailing round and going up the Connecticut, they attempted to fix the line there, in the ſame latitude. But either thro inattention or the uſe of bad inſtruments, they determined the line to fall in Windſor, many miles ſouth of the true line.

Of the Meaſures taken for aſcertaining the Boundary. Connecticut was diſſatisfied with the determination of Woodward and Saffery, and made repeated propoſals to Maſſachuſetts for a mutual adjuſtment of the controverſy, which were ineffectual. In 1694, a committee appointed by Connecticut, run the line and found the former ſurvey very erroneous. In this ſituation, the inhabitants of Suffield and Enfield, who ſettled under the claims and juriſdiction of Maſſachuſetts, continued to encroach upon Windſor and Symſbury, which excited warm animoſities. In the year 1700, further attempts were made to procure an amicable ſettlement of the diſpute; the line was run by commiſſioners of both colonies, in 1702, and found to fall far north of the former line; but Maſſachuſetts diſagreed to their report. In 1708, Connecticut appointed commiſſioners with full powers to run the line and eſtabliſh the boundary; and reſolved that unleſs Maſſachuſetts would unite to complete the buſineſs, they would apply to the crown.

Of the Settlement of the Boundary between Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut. Maſſachuſetts did not agree at once to the propoſal of Connecticut; but in 1713,

commissioners were appointed on the part of both colonies, who came to an agreement on the 13th of July. On running the line, it was found to fall north of Enfield, Suffield and Woodstock, which of course came within the jurisdiction of Connecticut. As an equivalent for the land which had been taken from Connecticut by encroachments, Massachusetts granted a tract of land in the western part of that colony, which, in 1716, was sold for two thousand two hundred and seventy four dollars, which sum was applied to the use of Yale College. This agreement however was not considered as conclusive and satisfactory; nor was the boundary between the two states definitively settled till May 1804.

Of Rhode Island. By the original patent of Connecticut, granted by the Earl of Warwick to Lord Say and others, dated March 19th, 1631, the eastern limit of the colony was Narraganset River. In the charter of 1662, the same river was made the eastern boundary of the colony. In March 1643, the planters at Providence and Newport obtained from the Earl of Warwick and the commissioners of plantations, a charter of incorporation, with powers of government; but the boundaries of their jurisdiction were not defined. In the following year, some of the planters applied to the commissioners of the United Colonies, to be received under the government of one of the colonies, and received for answer that if the major part of the landholders would, without reservation, submit, either Massachusetts or Plymouth might receive them.

Of the Determination of the Colonies concerning Rhode Island. At a meeting of the commissioners of the colonies held at Plymouth in Sept. 1648, an application was received from the Rhode Islanders to be received into the confederacy; but the commissioners replied, that upon perusal of the Plymouth patent, they found Rhode Island to be within that patent, which they had no right to abridge; and that great confusions and dis-

turbance existed among the inhabitants—Yet if they would acknowledge themselves within the jurisdiction of Plymouth, they would be received into the union and protected. But they never consented, and maintained a distinct civil government.

Of the Extension of the Bounds of Providence Plantations. The commissioners appointed by Charles 2d to settle disputes between the colonies, at the head of whom was Col. Nichols, determined that as the Narraganſets had, in 1644, submitted to become subjects of the crown of England, their country also belonged to the crown. They ordered the purchasers to remove from the lands, and arbitrarily extended the bounds of the province to Paucatuc river. In 1661, the United Colonies remonstrated with the government of Rhode Island, against the intrusions of their people upon lands near Paucatuc and the Pequot country, which had been conquered by the joint arms of Massachusetts and Connecticut, and had been located and disposed of. Frequent disputes arose between Connecticut and Rhode Island.

Of the charter Limits of Rhode Island. In the charter granted to Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, by Charles 2d, dated July 8, 1663, the colony was bounded west on Paucatuc river, north on Massachusetts, and east by the west line of the Plymouth colony, along the east side of Seekonk river to Patucket falls. This charter included the lands to the Narraganset river, which had been included in the old patent of Connecticut in 1632, and which, the king had, the year before, confirmed by charter to Connecticut. This occasioned great uneasiness and controversies.—Rhode Island pleaded, in justification, an agreement between Mr. Winthrop and Mr. Clark in England, dated March 7th, 1663, by which Mr. Winthrop as agent for Connecticut, consented that Paucatuc should be the boundary between the colonies.

Of the Conquest of the Narraganſets and final Settlement of the Boundary. In 1676, the forces of the Uni-

ted colonies subdued the Narraganſets, and took poſſeſſion of their country. The Rhode Iſlanders had not aſſiſted in the conqueſt, and Connecticut, rejecting the agreement of Mr. Winthrop, as void for want of authority, determined to ſettle and govern the country. In conſequence of theſe diſputes, commiſſioners were appointed by king Charles, April 7th, 1683, to inquire into the claims of the parties. On the 20th of October they reported, that the Narraganſet country of right belonged to Connecticut. This report was not confirmed by the king and the controverſy continued, many years, when a ſpirit of conciliation induced Connecticut to appoint a committee to make an amicable ſettlement of the controverſy. On the 12th of May 1702, the agents of the two colonies agreed and confirmed the line between them, to be Paucatuc river, from the ſea to the mouth of Aſhaway—thence a ſtrait line to the ſouth weſt corner of Warwick—and thence a north line to Maſſachuſetts. This line was run in 1728 and remains the boundary between the ſtates of Connecticut and Rhode Iſland.

Of the eaſtern Boundary between Maſſachuſetts and Rhode Iſland. The colony of Rhode Iſland was bounded by charter on the weſt line of Plymouth. After Plymouth was annexed to Maſſachuſetts in 1692, diſputes aroſe concerning the boundary between that colony and Rhode Iſland, which were not finally terminated till about the year 1740, when commiſſioners were appointed to ſettle the boundary. To the ſurprize of Maſſachuſetts, the line was determined to be eaſt of Briſtol, Tiverton and ſeveral other towns, which had always been conſidered as within Plymouth or Maſſachuſetts, but which were now annexed to Rhode Iſland. Maſſachuſetts appealed to the crown, but without effect. The line was eſtabliſhed and now remains the boundary between the two ſtates.

Of the Government of New Hampſhire. The firſt plantations on the Paſcataway were begun under grant to Maſon and Gorges, before the date of the Maſſach

ſetts charter. Other ſettlements were made under a purchaſe from the Indians. The planters, having no form or powers of government from the crown, united and formed regulations for their government, and for ſome time, their governor was appointed by the proprietors in England. In 1641, they formally ſubmitted to the government of Maſſachuſetts, and continued ſubject to it, until the year 1675, when the heirs of Maſon and Gorges revived their claims, which had been ſuffered to lie dormant, and demanded their property and right of government. Upon a hearing of the parties, it was determined by the judges of England, that the towns on the Paſcataway were not within the bounds of Maſſachuſetts. Accordingly on the 18th of September 1679, a commiſſion paſſed the great ſeal, erecting New Hampſhire into a ſeparate and royal government.

Of the Boundaries between Maſſachuſetts and New Hampſhire. For many years after this ſeparation, a controverſy ſubſiſted between thoſe colonies, relative to their reſpective boundaries. At length, in 1737, commiſſioners duly appointed, having heard the parties and conſidered their claims, made a report which was diſagreeable to both. The parties appealed to the king and council, who, in 1739, decided that the line between the colonies on the ſouth of New Hampſhire, ſhould run three miles north of the Merrimac, from the ſea to a point due north of Pautucket falls; then a due weſt courſe to his majeſty's other governments. On the north, a line along the middle of Paſcataway, and the Salmon Falls river, to the fartheſt head of the ſame, extending one hundred and twenty miles from Paſcataway harbor, was eſtabliſhed as the boundary between New Hampſhire and Maine. Theſe are the preſent boundaries.

Of Vermont. That tract of land which lies on the weſt ſide of Connecticut river, between the north line of Maſſachuſetts and Canada, remained a wilderneſs, till about the year 1750. The charters and grants of

New Hampshire did not extend to the Connecticut; but after the settlement of the line between that colony and Massachusetts in 1739, a line which was run in 1741, the colony of New Hampshire began to extend her claims westward as far as the east line of New York, which is twenty miles from the Hudson. Fort Dummer had been built in 1724, for a protection against the savages; it was supposed at that time to be in Massachusetts, but on running the line, it fell to the north of that colony, and New Hampshire considered it as within her jurisdiction. The place is now in the town of Brattleborough, in Vermont.

Of the first Locations in Vermont. In 1749, Benning Wentworth, governor of New Hampshire, granted a township on the west, and adjoining to the colony of New York, which he called Bennington—This is the oldest town in that state. For many years, he continued to grant townships on the west side of the Connecticut, and the territory thus acquired the name of New Hampshire grants. Under these grants settlements were made with surprizing rapidity; especially after the conquest of Canada in 1760.—About this time, New York began to assert her claim to this tract of land, under the clause of the grant to the Duke of York, which specified the lands on the *west side of the Connecticut*; and in 1763, Governor Colden issued a proclamation asserting that claim. In 1764, the governor of New Hampshire issued a proclamation, asserting the claims of that colony to the same territory.

Of the Progress of the Controversy. The government of New York applied to the crown, and in 1764 an order was obtained, in which his majesty declared the Connecticut to be the boundary between New Hampshire and New York, which was considered by New York, as a decision that the territory belonged to that colony. In consequence of which, the government of New York proceeded to divide the territory into counties, erect courts and grant lands. The grants made by New Hampshire, were declared to be invalid,

the grantees were required to ſurrender them and take new grants under New York. Actions of ejectment were brot and judgment recovered againſt the occupants. Some of the inhabitants complied with the requiſitions; and many refuſed. Controverſies ſucceeded which ended in oppoſition to the ſheriff of Albany, confuſions and riots. In 1767, the agents of the ſettlers procured an order of the king to put a ſtop to the proceedings of New York.

Of the violent Meaſures of New York. In 1772, Governor Tryon of New York made ſome attempts to effect an amicable adjuſtment of this controverſy; but the claims of the parties could not be reconciled. In 1774, the legiſlature of New York paſſed an act, making it felony in any of the ſettlers to refuſe to ſurrender himſelf to the orders of the governor and council, and a reward was offered for apprehending ſeven of the principal ſettlers. The conſequence was, a combination on the part of the ſettlers, to reſiſt the claims of New York by force. An attempt was made in concert with Col. Skeen, to procure this territory to be erected into a ſeparate royal government; but the revolutionary war in 1775, changed the aſpect of affairs. The ſeſſion of the court at Weſtminſter was oppoſed by force—one man was killed by the military, in attempting to diſperſe the inſurgents; and a committee of the inhabitants reſolved it to be the duty of the ſettlers to renounce and reſiſt the government of New York, until ſome ſecurity could be obtained for their lives and ſafety.

Of the Proceedings of the Settlers during the War. In autumn 1775, ſome perſons attended upon the congreſs in Philadelphia, to obtain advice—but nothing could be obtained, except the opinions of individuals, that it was prudent to aſſociate and form temporary regulations. In January 1776, a convention at Dorſet prepared and tranſmitted a memorial to congreſs, manifeſting their readineſs to bear a full proportion of the burdens of the war, but not to be conſidered as be-

longing to New York. Another convention in July 1776, entered into an aſſociation for the defence of their rights, and in September, they reſolved to take meaſures for erecting their territory into an independent ſtate. A general convention was called and met in January 1777 at Weſtminſter. On the 16th of that month, it was reſolved that the "diſtrict of territory, called New Hampſhire grants, of right ought to be and is hereby declared to be an independent ſtate." To this territory was given the name of *Vermont*, which ſignifies *green mountain*, from the mountains of that name, running thro the ſtate.

Of the proceedings of Congreſs in regard to Vermont. No ſooner was a government and ſtate formed in this territory, than an application was made to congreſs by the convention, to be received into the confederacy, as an independent ſtate. To this meaſure, the ſtate of New York made a moſt formidable oppoſition; and to prevent a rupture, or dangerous altercations with New York, congreſs was obliged to decline receiving Vermont into the union, and avoid any act that ſhould be conſtrued into an acknowledgment of the independence of that ſtate. New Hampſhire had long before ceaſed to exerciſe jurifdiction over the territory and had withdrawn all claims to the property.

Of the Extenſion of Vermont Juriſdiction. By the original grants to Maſon, under which New Hampſhire was ſettled, the colony could not claim more than ſixty miles of territory from the mouth of the Paſcataway. But ſeveral towns weſt of that line were ſettled and governed by New Hampſhire by common conſent. In 1778, ſixteen of the towns on the eaſt of the Connecticut, and not within the limits of the grants to Maſon, petitioned to be united with Vermont. This queſtion was referred to the people, and the aſſembly in June 1778, voted to receive them into the juriſdiction of Vermont. This meaſure alarmed New Hampſhire, and produced warm remonſtrances to Vermont

and to congreſs. That body was much diſpleaſed, and the next aſſembly in Vermont voted not to erect the ſixteen towns into a county, which was a virtual diſavowal of their former proceedings.

Of the Claims to Vermont. The inhabitants of the ſixteen diſcarded towns, and ſome of the towns on the weſt of the Connecticut, made a feeble attempt to erect another ſtate, whoſe center and ſeat of government ſhould be on the river; but without ſucceſs. To prevent ſuch confuſion and altercation, Vermont, in February 1779, voted to diſſolve the union with the ſixteen towns. Soon after this ſtep, New Hampſhire voted to aſſert her claim to the whole territory, as far as the bounds of New York, and New York aſſerted *her* claim alſo to the whole territory, as far as the Connecticut. Maſſachuſetts alſo ſet up a claim to a part of the ſame lands. In this ſtate of things, the governor of New York exerciſed acts of authority within Vermont, and every thing wore the appearance of an appeal to arms. Some military officers commiſſioned by the governor of New York, were taken priſoners by Col. Allen of Vermont; but upon the governor's application to congreſs, they were liberated.

Of the Proceedings of Congreſs on that Occaſion. Congreſs directed their commiſſioners, appointed for the purpoſe, to inquire into the facts relative to theſe controverſies; but this inquiry produced no reconciliation. Congreſs therefore, in September 1779, recommended to the parties concerned, to paſs laws authorizing congreſs to hear and determin their differences. New York and New Hampſhire complied; but Vermont declined it, as did Maſſachuſetts. The government of Vermont publiſhed an appeal, in which it was maintained that congreſs ought not to intermeddle with the police and government of that ſtate, or arbitrate upon its rights. In June 1780, congreſs reſolved that *the* proceedings of Vermont were highly unwarrantable, and ſubverſive of the peace and welfare of the United States. In September, congreſs began to hear

evidence of the claims of the ſtates, to the territory of Vermont, but the buſineſs was left unfiniſhed.

Of the Extenſion of the Juriſdiction of Vermont. Vermont being preſſed by its oppoſers, determined to enlarge the limits and augment the ſtrength of the ſtate. By means of circular letters, a convention was called of delegates from the towns on the eaſt ſide of the river. *Forty three* towns agreed to unite with Vermont, and in February 1781, their deſire was notified to the aſſembly of Vermont at Windſor. Upon which the Aſſembly on the 14th of that month, reſolved to claim the juriſdiction of all the territory in New Hampſhire, weſt of the Maſon line. On the 22d the articles of union were ratified. Some perſons within the limits of New York, having intimated a deſire to be united with Vermont, for protection, the aſſembly on the 14th of February, reſolved to extend their claim of juriſdiction to the river Hudſon.

Of the Negociations of Vermont with the Britiſh Commander. Not having been able, by repeated applications, to procure an admiſſion into the union of the ſtates, the leaders in Vermont adopted the plan of exciting the jealouſy of Congreſs, by entering into a negociation with the Britiſh commanders in New York and Canada; and by making it believed, that, if not received into the union, the ſtate would put itſelf under the protection of the Britiſh government. This negociation was attended with this good effect—it amuſed the Britiſh with the hope of detaching that ſtate from the American confederacy, and induced them to ſuſpend hoſtilities on its frontiers. This farce was continued, with great addreſs about three years, until the peace of 1783.

Of the Meaſures which led to the Admiſſion of Vermont into the Union. On the 7th of Auguſt 1781, congreſs reſolved to appoint a committee of five to confer with the agents of the ſeveral contending ſtates, reſpecting the claims of Vermont to independence. On the 20th of the ſame month, they reſolved it to be a preliminary

to the recognition of Vermont as an independent ſtate, that all its claims eaſt of the Connecticut, and within twenty miles of the Hudſon, ſhould be relinquiſhed.—In October, theſe reſolutions were conſidered by the aſſembly of Vermont, but it was determined not to comply with the conditions. In this ſituation of affairs, New Hampſhire and New York prepared to repel the uſurpations of Vermont upon their territory, with force of arms. Fortunately, no blood was ſhed, and in January 1782, General Waſhington interpoſed his influence, and like a guardian angel, perſuading the rulers of Vermont to recede from their unwarrantable claims, pointed out to them the way to ſafety. On the 28th of February 1782, the aſſembly of Vermont withdrew their claims within their original limits, the Connecticut on the eaſt and New York line on the weſt.

Of new Sources of Altercation. In the county of Windham, were ſome perſons attached to the government of New York, who oppoſed the raiſing and paying of men for protecting the frontiers of Vermont and who attempted to exerciſe the powers of government under authority from the government of New York. The Sheriff, aided by the military, was ſent to protect the courts—Five of the obnoxious characters were baniſhed and others fined. New York appealed to congreſs, who, in December 1782, reſolved that the proceedings of Vermont were derogatory to the authority of the United States, and dangerous to the confederacy. They alſo required Vermont to indemnify the perſons who had ſuffered damages from their proceedings. This reſolution had no effect, but to call forth a bold and ſpirited remonſtrance from the governor and council of Vermont, and another from the aſſembly, diſputing the right of congreſs to intermeddle with the government of the ſtate, and announcing their determination to maintain independence.

Of the final Admiſſion of Vermont into the Union. After the peace of 1783, Vermont, releaſed from the

fear of an enemy, was less solicitous about joining the confederacy of states. In this condition, it continued a separate state, managing its own concerns, until the year 1789. But after the organization of the general government over the states, in that year, New York ceased to oppose the independence of Vermont, and in July 1789, appointed commissioners to settle the controversy. In October, Vermont appointed commissioners for the same purpose. After meeting and deliberating, the parties agreed—and New York consented that Vermont should be admitted into the union, on condition of passing an act to pay to New York thirty thousand dollars, as a compensation for lands in Vermont claimed by citizens of New York—In consequence of this agreement, a convention was called at Bennington. In January 1791, a resolution was passed for joining the confederacy, and agents were appointed by the assembly to repair to Philadelphia to negociate the union. On the 18th of February 1791, the business was completed, and Vermont became a member of the confederacy.

Of the Controversy between Connecticut and Pensylvania. Connecticut, by her charter, extended from the Narraganset river on the east to the South Sea on the west excepting such lands as were then occupied by prior settlers. This charter was granted in 1662. In 1681 William Penn obtained a grant of lands on the west side of Delaware river, extending northward to the forty third degree of latitude. The date of this grant is nearly nineteen years after the date of the charter of Connecticut; but it covers a part of the territory which the people of Connecticut considered as granted to them. For nearly a century after the date of the charter, Connecticut neglected to claim and settle that part of her territory, which lay westward of the colony of New York; and the commissioners sent by the king determined in 1664, that the river or *creek called Maronec, should be the western bounds of Connecticut.*

Of the Purchaſe and Settlement of Wyoming. After Connecticut had granted all the lands eaſtward of New York, ſome perſons formed a deſign of planting the lands within her charter, on the Suſquehanna. A company was formed in 1753, and a purchaſe made from the ſachems of the ſix nations, by deed dated July 11th, 1754, of a large tract of land on the Suſquehanna, at Wyoming. The legiſlature of Connecticut ſanctioned the proceeding; but by reaſon of the war which followed, the land lay vacant, till 1762, when the firſt ſettlements were begun, which were enlarged in the following years, and eſpecially in 1768. In 1774, the ſettlement was erected into a town called, Weſtmoreland, which ſent repreſentatives to the aſſembly of Connecticut. In 1776, it was formed into a county, and courts eſtabliſhed, as in other counties in the colony.

Of the Penſylvania Purchaſe of the ſame Lands. The treaty of the Connecticut men with the Indians, and the ſubſequent purchaſe, excited the jealouſy of the proprietaries of Penſylvania; and they entered into a negociation with Hendrick, a ſachem who had declined ſigning the deed to the Connecticut purchaſers, to procure a deed of the ſame lands and defeat the Connecticut purchaſe. This object was effected ſo far as that a deed of the lands was obtained from the Indian chiefs. Grants of lands were made under the government of Penſylvania, and ſettlements begun which excited warm diſputes, and an attempt was made to drive the Connecticut ſettlers from the lands by force of arms.

Of the Progreſs of this Controverſy. In 1770 the legiſlature of Connecticut tranſmitted to England certain queſtions to be propoſed to the moſt able lawyers, reſpecting her title to lands weſt of New York. The anſwers were favorable to her claims and determined the colony to maintain them. But the revolutionary war ſuſpended the controverſy, until the year 1781, when both ſtates agreed to appoint commiſſioners with

owers to determin the diſpute. The commiſ-
s were appointed, and an act of congreſs was
, conſtituting them a court to hear and deter-
ne controverſy. This act was dated Auguſt 28,
On the 19th of November 1782, the commiſ-
s met and opened the court at Trenton.
the Points in the Controverſy. The agents of Con-
ut, in ſupport of their claims, relied on the
r granted in 1620 to the council of Plymouth
Earl of Warwick's deed to Lord Say and Seal
ompany in 1631—the charter of Connecticut
:d in 1662, and the purchaſe from the Indians
54. The agents of Penſylvania reſted their
on the grant of the lands to William Penn in 1681
eed from the Indians to the proprietary, dated
)er 25, 1736, granting to him the right of pre-
on to the lands in queſtion—and on the known
ſtabliſhed bounds of the ſtate of Pennſylvania.
s urged that the ſettlement of the line between
York and Connecticut in 1650, 1664 and 1683,
:ſtabliſhed the weſtern boundary of Connecticut.
ne agents of the latter ſtate maintained that thoſe
ons were intended only to fix the diviſional line
en New York and Connecticut.
the Determination of the Court. On the 13th of
nber 1782, the court pronounced their judgment,
t was their unanimous opinion, the ſtate of Con-
:ut had no right to the lands in Controverſy; but
he juriſdiction and preemption of all the territo-
ng within the charter boundary of Penſylvania,
claimed by Connecticut, of right belonged to Pen-
ıia—This deciſion terminated the controverſy on
art of the ſtate of Connecticut; but as it did not
nin the right to the ſoil, a long and violent con-
ſy enſued between Penſylvania and the ſettlers at
ning.
the Weſtern Reſerve. Notwithſtanding the ſtate
nnecticut acquieſced in the deciſion of the court
enton, *ſo far as it reſpected the land claimed by*

Pensylvania, yet they maintained their claim to all the territory within the north and south boundary lines of the state, as expressed in the charter, lying west of the Western limit of Pensylvania, and extending to the Mississippi. In compliance with the recommendation of Congress, and with a view to obtain the implied sanction of their charter claims, the state of Connecticut, by their delegates in Congress in the year 1786 ceded to the United States, all the lands within the charter limits, west of Pensylvania, excepting a tract of one hundred and twenty miles in length, adjoining to Pensylvania, on the west. This cession was accepted; and the acceptance was considered as an indirect acknowledgement that the Connecticut claim was well founded. This tract of one hundred and twenty miles, thus excepted out of the cession, was called the *Reserve.*

Of the Sale and Appropriations of the Reserve. A part of the reserved land, amounting to half a million of acres, was granted by the state to the inhabitants of New London, Fairfield, and Norwalk, whose property had been destroyed by the British troops, during the war. The remainder was sold, in 1795, and the money arising from the sale appropriated to the purpose of constituting a perpetual fund, for the support of schools in the state. To secure this land and the title to the purchasers, against the claims of the United States, an act of congress was obtained in the beginning of the year 1800, by which the title of Connecticut was confirmed, and the purchasers secured in their possessions; on the condition that the state of Connecticut should relinquish all future claim to land, lying westward of the present limits of the state. At the May session of the legislature in 1800, an act was passed fully complying with this condition, and thus ended a controversy which had lasted more than thirty years. The territory thus reserved forms a part of the state of Ohio.

Of the Government and Laws of the New England Colonies. The charters under which the first settle-

ments in New England were made, vested in the corporations, the power of making all laws which should be deemed expedient, provided they were not repugnant to the laws of England. By the charter of Massachusetts, the powers of government were lodged in the governor, deputy governor and eighteen assistants, who were to be chosen by the freemen, and who constituted a court to be held monthly—and in the whole body of the freemen, who were to be summoned to hold a general court at least once in a year. The first general court in Boston was held May 17, Old Style, 1631, when all the freemen attended and took the oath.

Of the first Practice under the Charter. At the first election the freemen chose the assistants and these chose the governor and deputy governor from among their own number; but this was a departure from the charter; and at the general court in May 1632, it was ordered that the freemen should choose the governor and assistants annually, and the governor be always selected from among the assistants. The governor and assistants at first exercised great powers—even to the laying of taxes, without consulting the freemen. The people in Watertown opposed this practice, but the court of assistants summoned them to appear before the court at Boston, and convinced them that the "government was rather in the nature of a parliament, than of a city corporation." The opposers therefore submitted and retracted what was called their error; but in fact was a correct opinion.

Of the Qualifications of a Freeman. In addition to the usual qualifications of electors, the possession of property and a good character, the first settlers of New England made it requisite, that a man should be in full communion with the church, to entitle him to the privilege of voting for rulers, and it was usual for the candidate to procure a certificate from his minister, of his orthodox principles and moral conversation. In Massachusetts, a proposition was made to the court in

1644, to repeal this law and extend the rights of freemen to others, who were not church members; but it was postponed, and the law continued till the year 1662, when it was repealed, in conformity with the injunctions of king Charles the second.

Of Changes in the Government of Massachusetts. It was customary at first for all the freemen of the colony to meet in general court, and the governor, assistants and freemen all assembled in one body or house. As the freemen multiplied, it became inconvenient for all to attend, and at the election in April, 1634, the freemen chose two of their number from each town to meet and consult upon some matters, previous to the general court in May, which had for their object a limitation of the powers of the court of assistants. After a consultation, and a perusal of the charter, they were convinced that the court of assistants had exceeded their powers, and repaired to the governor to advise with him and to propose the abrogation of some of their laws. The governor suggested, that as it was inconvenient for all the freemen to attend, a select number of them should revise, consider and prepare new laws or alterations, for the general court.

Of the Establishment of Representatives. In consequence of these proceedings, the general court in May 1634 enacted that there should be four general courts annually, but the whole body of freemen should be present only at the court of elections, and at the other three courts *deputies*, only from the towns should attend and manage the public concerns. The number of deputies from each town was three until the year 1639, when by an order of the general court the number was reduced to two. This ordinance excited much popular jealousy, which gradually yielded to a full conviction of its expedience.

Of the Origin of a negative Vote in the Court of Assistants. At the general court in September 1634, the Newtown people, under Mr. Hooker, presented a request for permission to remove to Connecticut; the

ging, as reasons, the want of more room to accommodate themselves with pasturage, the fertility of the Connecticut land and the urgency of their wishes. Many objections were raised to this proposal—among others, the unity of the Newtown people under the charter, and their duty to protect the colony, which was weak and exposed to assaults from the savages—they urged also the exposure of the people to the Dutch and Indians on the Connecticut. After great debate, the vote was taken—the governor and two assistants were in favor of the removal—the deputy governor and the rest of the assistants were against it—of the deputies, fifteen were for it, and ten against it. As the charter required seven of the assistants to make a quorum, and there was not a vote of a majority of that number for the removal, the governor and assistants contended, that the vote was not carried in the affirmative. On the other hand, there was a majority of the deputies in favor of it, and the deputies contended that the assistants could not impose a negative on their vote.

Of the Progress of this Dispute. As neither of the parties would yield the point in dispute, the court adjourned without entering the vote on the record; all agreeing however to keep a day of religious humiliation on that occasion, which was observed by all the congregations. Mr. Cotton, an eminent and influential clergyman, preached a sermon, in which he maintained the "strength of the magistracy or assistants to be their authority—that of the people, their liberty—that of the ministry, their purity," and he gave such reasons for the negative power of each, that, if not convinced, all were satisfied to let the question subside. A few days after, the court met, and business was carried on amicably; the assistants maintaining their negative voice, even while the representatives sat with them in the same room and all formed but one house or legislative body.

Of the Division of the Legislature into two Branch-

The assistants and deputies continued to sit in the same room and vote together about ten years; but not without great discontent on the part of the deputies, who conceived themselves abridged of their just rights, by the negative vote of the assistants. In March 1644, this dispute gave rise to a motion on the part of the deputies, that the assistants and deputies should separate and hold their deliberations in different rooms; and that the concurrence of both houses should be necessary to pass a bill into a law or resolve. The motion prevailed—and thus was established the distribution of the legislative power into two houses, which remains to this day, and has been adopted as a principle in most of the American Constitutions. In Connecticut however the practice of the assistants and deputies' sitting and voting together continued, until the October session in 1698, when the legislature passed an act by which that body was divided into two houses.

Of Attempts in Massachusetts to create Magistrates for Life. It was an opinion among our pious ancestors that great respect should be paid to elderly men, to magistrates and to ministers. This opinion was justified by the scriptures, and productive of very salutary effects. Some persons carried their attempts farther than was agreeable to public opinion. Before the general court at Boston in May, 1634, Mr. Cotton in a sermon maintained that a magistrate ought not to be turned into the condition of a private man; and the question afterwards coming before the court, was prudently postponed. In May 1636, a law passed to continue certain magistrates or assistants in office for life, as a standing council, and two were chosen for the purpose. But in May 1639, one of the elders giving his opinion that the governor ought to hold his office for life, popular jealousy was alarmed and a bill was presented to prohibit a councillor from exercising his office, *unless* annually elected to be a magistrate. This bill, *to quiet* the apprehensions of the people, was readily *passed into* a law.

Of the Introduction of Voting by Proxy. As the people were resolutely opposed to the extension of the power of the assistants, always pleading the charter to justify their opposition; so they took the liberty to depart from the letter of that instrument, when it was judged expedient. The charter vested the powers of government in the court of assistants, and whole body of freemen; making no provision for voting by proxy. But in May 1636, a law passed permitting the freemen of *remote* towns to send their votes by proxy to the court of elections. One reason for this alteration, was, the difficulty of procuring provisions for the whole assembly of freemen. This precedent being established, was afterwards followed by all the towns.

Of the Manner of Voting. In electing officers, the freemen at first used beans and corn—a bean gave a negative—and a kernel of corn, an affirmative vote. In 1634, pieces of paper were used—those for governor and deputy governor containing the name of the person voted for—but in choosing assistants, the name of a person was proposed by the governor or presiding officer; those who voted for the person, gave a paper with some writing on it—those who voted against him, gave blank paper. This custom gave rise to the manner of electing the council of Connecticut by nomination, which is still practiced.

Of the Choice of the Governor. It was an established law in the colonies to elect one of the assistants to be governor. This law in Connecticut was repealed in 1708, and the freemen were empowered to elect a governor from among their own body at large. But in such estimation have the governor and assistants been usually held by the people, that the same persons have, almost uniformly, been rechosen annually to their respective offices, during life, or during their ability to perform public business. This unchanging confidence in *their rulers*, while it is an evidence that they have *not abused their* powers, has been a principal means

the ſtability of government and harmony of councils, which have diſtinguiſhed the New England republics.

Of the Laws of the firſt Colonies. For a few years after the colonies were ſettled in New England, the magiſtrates governed by temporary regulations, or diſcretionary deciſions; aiming to bottom all their laws and proceedings on the word of God. But as many caſes occurred which it was difficult to determin, for want of preciſe rules, and the people thought ſuch diſcretionary powers unſafe, the court of Maſſachuſetts appointed a committee in March 1638, to compile a body of fundamental laws. The draft was prepared and in autumn 1639, publiſhed for conſideration. In December 1641, the general court enacted the laws, which were called the "Body of Liberties." Moſt of theſe laws were copied into the firſt code of Connecticut.

Of the Character of the Primitive New England Code. Moſt of the laws of the firſt ſettlers were founded on juſtice, the laws of England and of nations, but adapted to the peculiar circumſtances of the colonies. They were deviſed by able men of ſtrict probity and religion, and remain the baſis of the civil inſtitutions of the ſtates to this day. But as the compilers of thoſe codes, were puritans of rigid principles, their reverence for the ſcriptures led them to adopt ſome of the levitical laws, which are not adapted to modern times. Hence blaſphemy, an obſtinate denial of the being of a God, adultery, ſtubborn diſobedience of children, and witchcraft were puniſhable with death, and heretics were ſubject to baniſhment. Under theſe laws, ſome perſons ſuffered puniſhments that were cruel and unjuſt. But the colonies were no worſe than the mother country, where diſſenters of all kinds were cruelly perſecuted, and where witchcraft was puniſhable with death, long after the tragedies of that ſort had ceaſed in New England. It was an intolerant ſpirit common to all Europe, and the other American colonies.

Of the Primitive Government of Plymouth Colony. The planters at Plymouth were few in number, and they adopted the laws of England moſtly as the rules of judging in their own concerns, but, like thoſe of Maſſachuſetts, they annexed to ſome crimes penalties far too ſevere. They at firſt elected no civil officer except a governor and one aſſiſtant—in 1624, four more aſſiſtants were added, and in 1633, two more, making ſeven in all, which number continued till they reſigned their charter to Androſs. They had no deputies from the towns, until the year 1639, when deputies were choſen and formed, one houſe with the governor and aſſiſtants. Before that time, the freemen attended in perſon.

Of the Judiciary Power of the New England Colonies. The ſupreme power of deciding all caſes in law and equity, was originally in the court of aſſiſtants in Maſſachuſetts; and in Plymouth, was veſted in the governor and aſſiſtants by a law in 1634. The ſame law was adopted in Connecticut; and when by the increaſe of people and buſineſs, it was found inconvenient for the whole body of aſſiſtants to attend, it became a cuſtom for the general court to appoint annually four of the aſſiſtants with the deputy governor, to conſtitute the ſuperior court. This practice continued till the May ſeſſion 1784, when the governor, deputy governor and aſſiſtants were diſabled from holding the office of a judge of that court. The practice of the annual appointment of judges, derived from the practice of chuſing the aſſiſtants annually, ſubſiſts to this day.—The judges of the county courts alſo were primitively taken from among the aſſiſtants. As the ſupreme judiciary power, in the infant ſtate of the colonies, was exerciſed by the general court, when the aſſiſtants and deputies met in one houſe, ſo the legiſlature of Connecticut for a long time after its diviſion into two houſes, *retained* the ſame power.

Of the eccleſiaſtical Affairs of the New England Colonies. *The puritans left England and ſettled in Americ*

for the purpose of enjoying liberty of conscience, not being willing to conform to the ceremonies of the church of England. In America, they adopted the independent or congregational plan of government; by which each church chooses its own minister and officers, and submits to no government or censure from another church. They elected pastors and teachers, ruling elders and deacons; and it was the practice at times for the elders or principal men to expound passages of scripture, or discuss questions, which was called *prophesying*, in imitation of the primitive churches. No church could be gathered, without the permission of the magistrates. Ordination was performed by the laying on of hands, either of the neighboring ministers, or of lay brethren of the church. The former method was the most usual. The office of ruling elder and the custom of prophesying soon went into disuse.

Of the Sabbath and some peculiar Customs. The first settlers had scruples about the lawfulness of calling the days of the week by the names derived from idolatrous nations; they therefore called them by the numbers, first, second, third, &c. They called the first day, Sabbath or Lord's day.—The months they called the first, second, third, &c. beginning the year on the 26th of March, which was the first month—April, the second, and so on. The time of beginning the Sabbath was a subject of much debate and difficulty. The practice of keeping Saturday evening as holy time, seems to have originated in an order or injunction of the governor and deputy governor of the New England company, dated in England April 17, 1629, and directed to Mr. Endicott at Salem, that all persons should cease from labor at three o'clock on Saturday afternoon, and spend the rest of the day in catechizing and preparation for the sabbath. This practice was against the opinion of some eminent clergymen of that day, especially of Mr. *Hooker*.

Of public Lectures. For four years after Boston was settled, four lectures were preached weekly; but in

October 1634, it was agreed by the miniſters and magiſtrates, that this number required too much time; and therefore they reduced the number to two, which were to be preached alternately at Boſton, Cambridge, Roxbury and Dorcheſter. The number is now reduced to one, which is preached every Thurſday at Boſton.

Of Days of Faſting and Thankſgiving. The churches laid aſide the regular feſtivals of the Church of England, and appointed days of faſting, on ſpecial occaſions, ſuch as times of ſevere drouth, great mortality, ſcarcity of proviſions, danger from the ſavages and the like. Days of thankſgiving were appointed on occaſions of great joy, ſuch as the conqueſt of the Pequots, the termination of Indian wars, and eſpecially for abundant crops. Theſe occaſional days were frequent during the firſt generation, who ſuffered peculiar hardſhips, and who were expoſed to unceaſing perils, which impreſſed their minds deeply with a ſenſe of their dependence on the Supreme Being. The practice of the firſt ſettlers has given riſe, among their deſcendants, to a regular appointment of a day of humiliation in the ſpring, and a day of thankſgiving in autumn.

Of Church Diſciplin. The firſt churches were very rigid in their authority over the principles and morals of their members. The leaſt deviation from what they believed to be orthodoxy, and every immorality, was ſubjected to church cenſures. This narrow inſpection of every man's conduct, produced for many years, moſt exact morals in life and great uniformity of doctrins. But it was not poſſible to prevent differences of opinion, and when theſe aroſe, the ſeverity with which the perſons who avowed them, were cenſured, occaſioned many heartburnings and mutual reproaches. Some perſons were baniſhed from Maſſachuſetts, or excommunicated by the churches, and leaving the colony, they planted Rhode Iſland. The ſame rigid principles led to many abſtruſe inquiries and minute diſtinctions *on religious ſubjects*, which divided the opinions of *people; and in* ſome inſtances, churches were rent

asunder by speculative distinctions that are hardly intelligible. This party spirit was the offspring of excessive zeal to preserve a pure church; for men had not learnt that party spirit, in religion as in government, always thrives under persecution, and obstinate intolerance. But this intolerant spirit lasted but a few years.

Of the Platform of the Churches. In 1634 the churches in New England adopted certain canons and constitutions, defining the officers, their duties, modes of election, and the rules of proceeding and government. In 1648, a synod of elders and messengers at Cambridge adopted a platform of church government, containing the principles held by the churches, and an explanation of the powers and duties of the officers, the mode of ordination, the powers of the church, the manner of maintaining ministers, and the rules of admission, excommunication and censure. In 1708, delegates from the councils of the counties in Connecticut met at Saybrook and agreed upon an ecclesiastical constitution, called the *platform*, containing a confession of faith and regulations for administering church discipline. This was confirmed by the legislature in October of the same year, and remains the basis of church government to this day.

Of the Union of Churches in Connecticut. By the Saybrook platform, the ministers, elders and messengers of all the churches in a county or other district, constitute a *consociation*. The ministers of the churches in a county or other district, form an *association*, which is empowered to examin and recommend candidates. These councils are consulted in regard to religious concerns, and assist the churches in ordaining and dismissing their ministers; but their powers are mostly advisory. They however contribute, by their influence, to preserve peace and harmony among churches, restrain controversies and reconcile differences. A general association consists of delegates from the several associations in the state, and holds an annual meeting in each of the counties by rotation.

Of the Support of the Congregational Clergy. The firſt miniſters in New England were maintained by weekly contributions. The famous Mr. Cotton preached a ſermon in Boſton, in December 1633, in which he urged that the ſcriptures clearly direct the maintenance of miniſters to be defrayed, like other charges of the church, out of a cheſt or treaſury to be ſupplied by contribution; upon which the church adopted the practice. But it was laid down as a principle, in the firſt church laws, that miniſters ought to be ſupported by their hearers, and in caſe of neglect, that the magiſtrate might be called upon to compel them to make payment. The clergy have now fixed ſalaries paid by a tax on the pews of the church or the property of the hearers. The firſt ſettlers in Rhode Iſland adopted a different principle, and a declaration of general toleration, being incorporated into the charter of that colony, the laws furniſh no aid in ſupporting the goſpel. In none of the ſtates, at this time, is a man compelled to maintain religious worſhip, in a church to which he does not belong.

Of the Introduction of the Epiſcopal Church. There was no regular public worſhip in Maſſachuſetts, except in the congregational churches, until the year 1686, when an epiſcopal church, conſiſting of about four hundred perſons, met regularly for worſhip. The firſt epiſcopal church in Connecticut was collected at Rye in 1704, under Mr. Muirſon. The ſecond was formed at Stratford in 1706. Some oppoſition was made to the eſtabliſhment of that church in the colony, which ſerved only to increaſe the zeal of its advocates. From ſuch ſmall beginnings, the epiſcopal church has become large and reſpectable in many parts of New England, eſpecially in the commercial towns.

Of a Community of Lands and Goods in Plymouth. The firſt adventurers to Plymouth placed all their property in a common ſtock, to be uſed and improved for the benefit of the company. The lands alſo were at firſt cultivated in common, and the fruits of the earth

depoſited in a common magazine. Within three ye exp. ri-nce convinced the people of the abſurdity of project; for many perſons, expecting to be mainta ed out of the public fund, neglected to labor, and colony was in danger of periſhing with hunger. 1623, the company placed every ſingle perſon in ſc family, aſſigned a portion of land to each, and left e ry family to truſt to its own labor for food. The e ſequence was the ſettlers became more induſtrio mor contented, and had food in abundance.

Of Sumptuary and Regulating Laws. The planter New England, on their arrival in a wilderneſs, wher was difficult at firſt to obtain the neceſſaries of life, a impoſſible to enjoy luxuries, attempted by example a law to reſtrain all exceſſes in diet or dreſs. Gove or Winthrop, ſoon after he arrived, laid aſide the pr tice of drinking healths, at his own table, and reco mended it to others. In 1639, the practice was forl by law. In 1634, laws were paſſed prohibiting t uſe of tobacco, immodeſt faſhions, and coſtly appar In 1633, a law was made to limit the price of labc workmen being ſcarce and demanding high wag Maſter workmen were allowed two ſhillings and lab ers, eighteen pence, a day: Money being of ſterli value. It was alſo ordered that the advance on goc ſhould not exceed four pence on a ſhilling, beyond t price in England. Theſe laws had no durable effe and the general court in 1640, finding that labor would either tranſgreſs the laws or leave the colon repealed the act regulating wages, and left every tov to fix the price of labor among its own inhabitan which had a better effect.

Of the firſt Shipping built in New England. The fi attempt to build water craft in New England, was 1626. The Plymouth people, finding themſelves e poſed to great hazards in coaſting with an open boa and having no ſhip carpenter, employed a houſe ca penter, who ſawed into two parts their largeſt boa inſerted timbers to lengthen it five or ſix feet, buil

deck and rigged it into a convenient veſſel, which did ſervice for ſeven years.

The firſt veſſel built in Maſſachuſetts was a bark of thirty tons, built by Governor Winthrop, at Miſtic, lanched July 4, 1631; and called the *Bleſſing of the Bay*. The day of the firſt lanch is now the anniverſary of Independence. In 1633, a ſmall ſhip of ſixty tons was built at Medford. In 1636, a ſhip of one hundred and twenty tons was built at Marblehead, and called the *Deſire*, which belonged to the people of Salem, whoſe deſcendants are remarkable for their commercial enterprize. This was the firſt American ſhip that made a voyage to England.

Of the Cauſes which promoted Ship Building. The planters of New England had veſted all their property in money, or neceſſaries for beginning a plantation; but having little commerce, their money was, in a few years, expended, and they had few reſources to ſupply themſelves. Foreign ſhips came to trade with them, but took little beſides money in payment, by which means, the colonies were ſoon drained of caſh. Braſs farthings were ſometime uſed for ſmall change, and afterwards bullets. In 1640, money had become ſo ſcarce, that the government directed grain to be given in payment of debts, at fixed prices; and when no perſonal eſtate could be found, lands to be apprized to creditors upon execution. This was the origin of tender laws. In this ſituation, the price of lands, and of cattle fell to a fourth of their former nominal value. This put the people upon ſowing flax and hemp and importing cotton.

Of the firſt Attempt to encourage Commerce. In this languiſhing ſtate of trade, the apprehenſion of a want of foreign commodities, alarmed the people in Maſſachuſetts, and they determined to provide ſhipping of their own. Mr. Peters, a public ſpirited man, procured a number of perſons to join him in building a ſhip of three hundred tons at Salem in 1640, and this ex-

ample was soon followed by the inhabitants of Boston, who built one of one hundred and sixty tons. Both were finished in 1641. That of Boston was called the Trial. Money was not obtainable to pay the carpenters, but they agreed to take the produce of the country. Thus commenced a spirit of commerce which has made the northern states rich and respectable.

Of the Fisheries and Trade of the Colonies. Within a few years after the discovery of North America by Cabot, the English and French began to take great quantities of fish on the American coast, especially on the banks of Newfoundland. This business had become of great importance, more than fifty years before the settlement of Plymouth. The fish were mostly carried to Spain and Portugal. The first planters in New England found their time and money so much occupied in procuring the means of subsistence, that for some years, they could not carry on the fisheries to a great extent. Their principal article of export was peltry; and mostly beaver skins, which they purchased of the Indians for goods of small value. To procure beaver, was the first object of the colonies in establishing trading houses at Kennebec, Connecticut and other places. In 1639, a fishing trade was begun at Cape Ann, and the stock employed in it was exempted from taxation for seven years. This seems to have been the first act of government for encouraging the fishery. In 1641, three hundred thousand codfish were sent to market.

Of the importance of the Peltry Trade to the Colonies. Of such value was the trade in peltry to the first planters, that each colony claimed and maintained an exclusive right of trading with the Indians, within the limits of its own patent. Hence arose serious contests between the colonies. In 1631, a small pinnace from Salem, bound to Boston, was driven into Plymouth by adverse winds, and the governor of Plymouth was so much alarmed with the fear that the people should open a trade with the natives, that he forbid them and threat-

ened to oppose them by force. A similar jealousy caused a contest between the Plymouth traders at Kennebec and a trading boat from Pascataway, in which two men were killed. This trade also was a principal cause of the controversy between the English and Dutch, concerning the right to Connecticut river. And so valuable was the trade, that the English even planted maiz for the Indians, the better to enable them to spend their time in collecting beaver.

Of the Progress of Trade in the Colonies. The planters imported at first much of their provisions, and for many years, all their clothing from England. In 1631, on account of a scarcity in England, their wheat, with the freight, cost them fourteen shillings sterling a bushel, and pease, eleven and six pence. From Virginia, they received small supplies of maiz. In 1631, a small pinnace from Virginia sold her maiz in Salem for ten shillings sterling the bushel. In the same year, an English ship, after landing some cattle at Boston, sailed for St. Kitts, but not to return to New England. In 1634, a vessel went to Bermuda and returned by the way of Virginia, with corn and oats. The first vessel directly from the West Indies, was a Dutch ship of 160 tons, which came from St. Kitts and arrived at Marblehead, in May, 1635, laden with salt and tobacco. St. Kitts had then been settled twelve years and contained about four thousand inhabitants. In June, the same year, arrived two Dutch ships from the Texel, with horses and cattle; the price of such animals being high—horses and mares from thirty to forty pounds sterling—cows and heffers, from twelve to twenty five pounds, and sheep fifty shillings. In April 1636, the small ship built at Medford returned from Bermuda, with potatoes, which were sold in Boston at two pence the pound; corn being very scarce.

Of Trade to the West Indies. The first American vessel that went to the West Indies, was a pinnace of thirty tons, which, in 1636, was bound to Bermuda and attempting to return, was forced by stress of wea-

er, to Hiſpaniola. She returned the next ſpring, with *hides* and *tallow*. The next year, the Salem ſhip, Deſire, made a voyage to New Providence and Tortuga, and returned in March 1638, laden with cotton, tobacco, ſalt and *negroes*. This ſeems to be the date of the firſt introduction of Africans into New England. The next arrival from the Weſt Indies was a ſmall Engliſh veſſel, in 1639, with indigo and ſugar—and this is the firſt mention, in our annals, of the importation of theſe articles. In 1642 three ſhips were built, one at Boſton—one at Salem, and the other at Dorcheſter. In the ſame year, a Dutch ſhip from the Weſt Indies exchanged her cargo of ſalt for plank and pipe ſtaves—the firſt export of lumber to the Weſt Indies mentioned in the annals of New England. A ſecond ſhip arrived the ſame year and took a cargo of pipe ſtaves, and ten ſhips ſailed with lumber before winter. This firſt diſcovery of new markets for lumber excited no ſmall joy among the planters; for ſtaves had lain uſeleſs on their hands.

Of Trade to other Foreign Countries. In autumn 1642, a ſmall ſhip arrived at Boſton from Madeira laden with wine and ſugar, which were exchanged for pipe ſtaves and other commodities. One of the Boſton ſhips, laden with lumber and fiſh, made a voyage to Fayal and the Weſt Indies. The other lumber ſhips, which went to the Weſt Indies, made ſucceſsful voyages, and returned in the ſpring of 1643 with wine, ſugar and cotton. At that time, the colonies were in great diſtreſs for food, owing to a bad crop of corn; and otherwiſe impoveriſhed, ſo that ſome of the people actually left New England, and many talked of abandoning the country. The ſucceſſes of their infant trade, at this juncture, gave them new life, contributing to eſtabliſh the ſettlements and render them proſperous.

Of the Trade of Connecticut. The planters on the Connecticut, occupying a rich ſoil, attended very little to trade, for many years. They exported horſes

lumber to the West Indies, Fayal and Madeira, in 1680, the amount did not exceed nine thousand nds. At that time no more than twenty small vesbelonged to the colony. They had a trifling trade h New York, but most of their traders supplied mselves with goods at Boston, where they sold the visions which were exported. The primitive plan- of New Haven contemplated a great trade; but a of one hundred and fifty tons, which they had proed to be built at Rhode Island, going to sea, in the ter of 1646—7, foundered and was lost with six even of the principal planters; which, with other ouragements, frustrated their intentions.

Of Arts and Manufactures. The first mill erecby the planters was a windmill near Watertown, the situation not being good, it was taken down in gust 1632 and placed on a hill in Boston. To this , corn was brot from Pascataway to be ground. 1633, a watermill was erected by one Dummer, at xbury. In 1636, a windmill was erected at Charles, and watermills at Salem, Ipswich and Newbury. order of the court, a market was erected in Boston March 1634, and Thursday was directed to be the kly market day. In the same year was set up the t merchant's shop and the first house of entertainnt. The manufactures of the settlers were very , and confined to the most necessary articles of clog and utensils for agriculture. Not being used to ring lands of wood, they bestowed more labor n was necessary, as they dug up all the stumps of the s. By bills of charges now extant, it appears that clearing of one home lot in Hartford, cost fifty nds sterling an acre.

Of the Introduction of Printing. The first printing s in New England, was established at Cambridge, March 1639, by one Day; the proprietor's name Glover, who died on his passage to America. The t *thing printed* was the freemen's oath—the second

an almanac—and the third a version of the psalms. No press was set up in Connecticut until the year 1709, when printing was begun at New London by one Short. The first code of Connecticut laws was revised by the general court held at Hartford in October 1672, and printed by Samuel Green at Cambridge, in Massachusetts, in 1675. The first gazette published in New England, was the News Letter, printed in Boston in 1704. The first newspaper in Connecticut was the Connecticut Gazette, begun at New Haven by James Parker, in January, 1755, but was discontinued in 1767, the printer moving to New York.

Of the Foundation of Colleges. The first university in the colonies was that at Cambridge, founded in 1638. The first commencement was held in October 1642, when nine students were admitted to the degree of bachelors. It took its name *Harvard*, from a principal benefactor. For more than sixty years, gentlemen in Connecticut sent their sons to Cambridge for an education; but in 1699 the clergy in Connecticut nominated ten of their number, as trustees to found a college. These met at New Haven in 1700 and formed a society, which was to consist of eleven clergymen and a rector, for the purpose of establishing and governing a college. A charter of incorporation was granted by the legislature in October 1701. Mr. Pierson of Killingworth was appointed the first rector, and during his life, he instructed the students in that town. The first commencement was in September 1702. On the death of Mr. Pierson in 1704, the students were placed in Milford and Saybrook, under different instructors, and so continued until 1716, when New Haven was made the permanent seat of the college. In the year 1799, the number of graduates amounted to two thousand five hundred and five. It is called *Yale College*, after the name of one of its principal benefactors.

Of the Establishment of Public Schools. The first planters of New England, aware of the importance of

knowledge and learning among a free, chriſtian people, extended their care to the education of their children; and as ſoon as the firſt difficulties of obtaining ſubſiſtence, were overcome, paſſed laws for encouraging the general diffuſion of knowledge. In Maſſachuſetts and Connecticut, every town, containing a ſufficient number of houſeholders, was obliged to procure a teacher for ſuch children as parents wiſhed to put under his care. In Connecticut, this proviſion extended to females as well as males. And the better to induce every town to avail itſelf of this proviſion, the law grants and appropriates, to each town or ſchool diſtrict, a ſum of money payable out of the treaſury of the ſtate, equal to one five hundreth part of the value of the taxable property of the inhabitants, as rated in the grand liſt or public aſſeſſment. In addition to this, each town has the command of a large fund ariſing from the ſale of a tract of land called the *Weſtern Reſerve.* In conſequence of which almoſt every child in the ſtate has acceſs to a ſchool, ſome part of the year.

SECTION IX.

Military Events.

Of the principal Wars in the Colonies.

WHILE the people of this country remained under the dominion of Great Britain, they were involved in all her contentions with France and the Dutch. Soon after king William aſcended the throne of England in 1688, war was declared by France, and the French commander in Canada inſtigated the ſavages to fall on the frontier ſettlements. It was on this occaſion that Schenectady was ſacked, and the inhabitants maſſacred. To put a ſtop to the depredations of the French and ſavages, it was contemplated to conquer *Canada.* For this purpoſe an expedition was projected

by the commiſſioners of the colonies in 1690. The crown was ſolicited to afford ſome aid, but it could not be granted on account of the troubles in Great Britain.

Of the Expedition againſt Canada under Sir William Phips. The land forces ordered for this invaſion conſiſted of eight hundred and fifty men, raiſed by the colonies of New England and New York, and commanded by General Winthrop. At the ſame time, a fleet of armed ſhips and tranſports, with eighteen hundred men, under Sir William Phips, was ordered to ſail up the Iroquois, to co operate with the land forces in the reduction of Quebec. But the expedition proved unſucceſsful. The fleet had a long paſſage and did not arrive before Quebec till October. The land troops were not furniſhed with proviſions, nor boats to convey them over the lake and they returned. The forces however landed from the fleet, and the ſhips cannonaded Quebec, but without much effect; while they ſuffered ſeverely from the batteries of the enemy. Stormy weather ſoon ſucceeded and made it neceſſary to abandon the enterprize.

Of Col. Fletcher's Commiſſion. In 1692, Col. Fletcher arrived with the commiſſion of governor of New York, and alſo with power to command the militia and garriſons of Connecticut. The colony immediately diſpatched General Winthrop, as an agent, to remonſtrate to the king and council, againſt this extraordinary power. In the mean time, Col. Fletcher went to Hartford, and in his majeſty's name, required the colony to ſurrender to him the command of the military. The train bands in Hartford were paraded and Col. Fletcher directed his ſecretary to read his commiſſion. But Capt. Wadſworth, the ſenior officer, ordered the drums to be beat and interrupted the reading. Col. Fletcher commanded ſilence, repeatedly; till Capt. Wadſworth, with a firm tone, told him, "if he was not ſilent, he would make the ſun ſhine thro him in a *moment*." Col. Fletcher, finding he could not ſuc-

ceed, judged it expedient to withdraw, and returned to New York.

Of the Progress and Conclusion of this War. In the spring of 1690, Sir William Phips, with a few ships and a small number of men, took possession of Nova Scotia, and the country from Port Royal to Penobscot. The Massachusetts colony began to exercise the powers of government there; but was interrupted by Villebon, a Frenchman, who established himself on the river St. John. The French also sent a force from Quebec and took the fort at Pemaquid and demolished it. Upon which Capt. Church, with a body of troops, committed depredations upon the French inhabitants, and an attempt was made to take Villebon's fort, but by ill management, it was frustrated. In 1693, a fleet under Sir Francis Wheeler, was ordered to act against the French in the West Indies, and then to repair to Quebec and in conjunction with a body of New England troops, reduce Canada. But by a malignant fever, which destroyed most of the troops of the fleet, this expedition was defeated. In 1697, the French in Canada planned an attack upon Boston, and a large fleet was sent from France to co operate in the design; but adverse winds, and other ill events, frustrated the project.—In the same year, a treaty of peace was signed at Ryswick, between England and France, and hostilities ceased.

Of the War in Queen Ann's Reign. Soon after queen Ann succeeded to the English throne, in 1702, war was declared against France, and the settlements in New England were again exposed to the incursions of ferocious Frenchmen and Indians from Canada. In 1704, Col. Church, with a party of men, visited Nova Scotia, and distressed the poor inhabitants, without taking any important post. After burning and plundering several towns and villages he returned. In 1707, a considerable force was sent under Col. March, to reduce Port Royal, in Nova Scotia; but after landing and engaging in some skirmishes, it was judged raw

troops were not sufficient to take so strong a fort, and they retired to Casco. Here a reinforcement was received, and three persons arrived with authority from Massachusetts, to renew and inspect the seige. But a second attempt proved equally unsuccessful. In August 1708, a party of Indians, headed by Frenchmen, assaulted Haverhill on the Merrimac, burnt some of the houses and slew thirty or forty of the inhabitants. Mr. Rolfe, the minister, was killed; but his maid covered two of his young daughters with tubs in the cellar, and saved their lives.

Of the Progress of this War. Finding the colonies could not be safe from the ravages of the French and Indians, while Canada and Nova Scotia were under the government of France, Massachusetts solicited, and the queen granted a large naval force, to aid in the reduction of those provinces. The New England colonies, with New York, in 1709, raised about two thousand and five hundred men, who were commanded by General Nicholson. These marched to Wood Creek, south of lake George, and there waited to hear of the arrival of the expected fleet at Boston. But the fleet did not arrive, and the troops lay at Wood Creek, till autumn. While encamped, they were attacked with a malignant disease, which occasioned a great mortality, and compelled them to withdraw.—Thus ended all the expensive preparations for subduing Canada. The next year, however, a body of colonial troops, under General Nicholson, sailed to Port Royal, and took possession of it by capitulation.

Of the Expedition under Admiral Walker. In 1711, General Nicholson procured of the queen, a fleet of men of war and transports, under Admiral Walker, for aiding in the conquest of Canada. This fleet arriven at Boston in June, and altho not expected, the colonies made the best preparation they could to second the operations. The whole force, when the British and colonial troops were united, amounted to seven thousand men. General Nicholson went to Albany, in

tending, with additional forces, to join Admiral Walker before Quebec. The fleet sailed from Boston July 30th, but met with fogs and tempestuous weather, near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, in which eight or nine transports, with about a thousand men were lost, by ship wreck. This put an end to the expedition—the admiral sailed to England, and the colonial troops returned. The peace of Utrecht, signed March 3d, 1713, put an end to hostilities, and continued till 1739.

Of the Taking of Lewisburg. Great Britain declared war against Spain in October 1739, and against France in March, 1744. In the following winter, the legislature of Massachusetts planned a daring, but successful enterprize against Lewisburg, a strong fortress belonging to the French, on the island of Cape Breton. The motive was to remove the French, who greatly annoyed our fishery; and Governor Shirley was the most active promoter of the expedition. Four thousand troops from Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Hampshire, under the command of General Pepperel, sailed from Boston, the last week in March 1745. The expedition was undertaken without the knowledge of the government of England; but a request had been made to commodore Warren, then in the West Indies, to assist in its execution, who arrived with a sixty gun ship, and two or three frigates. The troops arrived, the latter part of April, and landing their heavy cannon, planted batteries, without regard to system, and pushed the seige with such vigor, that the garrison capitulated on the 17th of June. This expedition was as honorable to the projectors, as the acquisition of the fortress was useful to the colonies, and the British Empire.

Of the French Chebucto Fleet. In 1746, the French fitted out a fleet of eleven ships of the line, with a great number of smaller ships, and more than three thousand land forces, under the command of the duke *Danville, for* the purpose of recovering possession of

Cape Breton and attacking the Engliſh colonies. This force was to be joined by four ſhips under Conflans from the Weſt Indies, and ſeventeen hundred French and Indians from Canada. No Engliſh fleet ſailed in queſt of the French; and great was the conſternation of the colonies, when news was received that the French fleet was near the American coaſt. But kind providence blaſted the hopes of the enemy. By ſtorms, ſome of the ſhips were damaged, and they bore away for the Weſt Indies—One was condemned and burnt —one was forced to return to Breſt by a malignant diſeaſe among her crew. A part of the fleet arrived at Chebucto, now Halifax, in September; but the admiral ſoon died, and the troops were ſickly; ſo that the fleet returned to France and the colonies were providentially relieved from their anxiety. This war cloſed by a treaty of peace ſigned at Aix la Chapelle, in March 1748.

Of the Plan of a Union of the Colonies in 1754. All the preceding wars had left the French maſters of Canada; they were alſo in poſſeſſion of Louiſiana, a large tract of country, on the weſt of the Miſſiſippi. They knew the value of America, and had early formed the plan of reſtraining the ſettlements of the Engliſh. This was their object in all their wars, and for this purpoſe, they united with the Indians, in burning towns, and murdering the inhabitants. The better to accompliſh their deſigns, they extended their ſettlements on the Iroquois and the Lakes; and finally attempted to eſtabliſh a chain of fortified places from Canada to Louiſiana, on the back of the Engliſh colonies. This alarmed Great Britain as well as the colonies, and the Britiſh government ſuggeſted to the colonies, the neceſſity of confederating for the purpoſe of mutual ſafety.

Of the Meeting of Commiſſioners and the Plan propoſed. In July 1754, commiſſioners from the northern and middle colonies met at Albany, and agreed to a plan of union, drawn up by Dr. Franklin. By this it was

proposed that the confederated colonies should have a general government, formed by delegates from the several colonies, and appointed by the houses of representatives, once in three years. This government was to be administered by a president general, who was to be appointed and maintained by the crown. The powers of this grand council extended to affairs of general safety, especially to the regulation of trade with the Indians, purchases of their lands, treaties with them, new settlements, and making provision for defense, in time of war. This plan, tho obviously salutary for the colonies, was not approved by the crown; probably on account of a jealousy of the growing strength of the colonies, which made the British court apprehend a future resistance of the authority of parliament. In lieu of this plan, the British ministry proposed another, which should be more dependent on the crown; and by this difference of opinion, the projected union was frustrated.

Of the Beginning of the War in 1754. The encroachments of the French, and the erection of forts, on lands claimed by the colonies or the crown of Great Britain, occasioned an order from the crown to the colonies to resist the French. In November 1753, Major Washington, who afterwards commanded the armies of America, was dispatched by Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia, to learn the views of the French, who had taken possession of the territory on the Ohio. By the answer of the French commander, it appeared that the government of France claimed the country, and determined to keep possession. The Virginians then erected a fort on the Monongehala, but it was taken by the French in 1754. In July, the same year, Col. Washington, who commanded about four hundred men, was attacked by superior numbers and obliged to capitulate. In 1755, hostilities commenced between Great Britain and France, and America became the theater of important operations.

Of General Braddock's Defeat. Early in the of 1755, General Braddock, with two regimen rived in Virginia, and proceeded, together with of colonial troops, under Col. Washington, to the French from their fort, on the Ohio. Be layed by want of carriages, and provisions, he arrive at Fort Cumberland, till June. Here Col. Dunbar with eight hundred men, to car ward the provisions and heavy baggage; and cing towards the French fort, du Quesne, whic where Pittsburg is now built, his troops amoun twelve hundred, fell into an ambush of India French, who, being concealed behind trees, fire fatal effect, upon the British and American The general and his principal officers were with about seven hundred men; the remainde saved by the brave and skilful conduct of Col. ington.

Of General Johnson's Victory. In the same su the northern colonies raised a body of about five sand men, who were intended to take Crown P fort fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga. G Johnson, who commanded these troops, marched to Lake George, where he encamped to wait for to transport the men down the lake. While in that situation, a body of French forces under Dieskau, advanced by South Bay, with a view tack and seize the camp at the portage, now Fort Edward. But understanding that the pla defended by cannon, and that General Johnson's was destitute of large guns, the Baron altered h and attacked General Johnson's troops. The were repulsed with the loss of several hundred An expedition against Niagara, under governor of Massachusetts, was intended, the same year, body of troops marched to the lake; but the exe of the plan was deferred on account of the late the season.

Of the Conquest of Nova Scotia. In the ye

, an expedition againſt Nova Scotia was conducted
Col. Monckton and General Winſlow, with a ſmall
y of Engliſh troops and two thouſand men from
Iachuſetts. The principal fortreſs was taken with
e loſs, and the country ſubdued. The inhabi-
s were deſcendants from French ſettlers, and had
uently changed maſters, as their country was con-
ed alternately by the Engliſh and French. They
d themſelves neutrals; but it was the determina-
of the commanders, in this expedition, that they
ld all be removed and their eſtates confiſcated.
ordingly, about two thouſand men, women and
dren were tranſported to New England, diſperſed
different towns, and incorporated with the inhab-
ts.

f the Loſs of Fort Oſwago. Altho hoſtilities had
menced in 1754, yet no formal declaration of war
made till May 1756, when it was proclaimed by
Britiſh king in the uſual form. Lord Loudon was
ointed governor of Virginia and commander in
f of the forces in America. Governor Shirley was
lled, and general Abercrombie ſucceeded him in the
mand of the forces in the northern colonies.
ſe generals, with additional troops, arrived and pro-
led to Albany; but before they were prepared to
n their operations, the garriſon at Oſwago conſiſt-
of fourteen hundred men, had ſurrendered to the
nch. This poſt was very important, as it com-
ded the communication between Canada, and the
o. The campain cloſed without any other great
t, and the winter was ſpent in preparations for
ſecuting the war with vigor, the next ſummer.

f the Military Operations in America in 1757.
at preparations had been made to attack Crown
nt, but the plan of operations was changed; and
d Loudon went to join admiral Holborn, who ar-
d in July, with a ſquadron of ſhips to attack Lew-
rg, which had been reſtored to France by the peace
48. This plan alſo was defeated by the previous

arrival of a strong squadron of French ships and a large land force. Lord Loudon departed, and in the winter following, went to England; and the English fleet, after being shattered by a violent tempest in September, returned to England. In the mean time, the French general Montcalm laid seige to fort William Henry on Lake George, and after a brave defense, without any prospect of relief, general Webb, the commanding officer, surrendered. Thus the campain of 1757 ended with disgrace to the British arms; while the French were gaining strength and multiplying their forts on the back of the colonies. These misfortunes were owing to bad management in the British councils, and the want of concert in the colonies, which were governed by different legislatures, and could not be brot to act with union or energy.

Of the Conquest of Cape Breton in 1758. In 1758, great efforts were made to subdue the French in America. Three armies were employed—one commanded by general Amherst, destined to take Lewisburg—one under general Abercrombie, to act against Crown Point—and a third under general Forbes, to drive the French from the Ohio. A fleet under admiral Boscawen, and twelve thousand men, under general Amherst, laid seige to Lewisburg; which, after a vigorous resistance, surrendered. Three French ships of the line were set on fire by bombs, and burnt in the harbor. Two others were boarded and taken, and forty cannon out of fifty two in the principal bastions, were dismounted, before the besieged consented to capitulate. The inhabitants of the island were sent to France, and the prisoners to England. Col. Rolls was then dispatched, with a body of troops, to St. Johns, which island submitted to the arms of England. After the conquest of Canada, in 1760, the fortifications of Lewisburg were utterly demolished and reduced to a heap of rubbish.

Of the Defeat of General Abercrombie. The French had erected a fort at Ticonderoga, at the point of com-

munication between Lake George, South Bay and Lake Champlain. To diſpoſſeſs them of this important place and of Crown Point, was the object of general Abercrombie, with the main diviſion of the forces, amounting to ſeven thouſand Britiſh regulars, and ten thouſand colonial troops. This army arrived near Ticonderoga, in July. After diſembarking from the battoes, the troops had to march thro woods, and the center column under Lord Howe, a young officer of great worth, met and defeated a detachment of the French forces, retreating from an out poſt; but this advantage was purchaſed by the loſs of Lord Howe. The main body advanced and attacked the fort, but the French were ſo well protected by abbatis and a breſt work eight feet high, that the Britiſh troops could not carry the works. After an action of four hours, during which the troops were expoſed to a terrible fire, the general ordered a retreat, having loſt eighteen hundred men, and returned to the camp at Lake George.

Of the Taking of Fort Frontenac and Pittſburg. The ill ſucceſs at Ticonderoga was in part counter balanced, by the taking of fort Frontenac on the Iroquois, near lake Ontario, by a party of colonial troops under colonel Bradſtreet. This fort was garriſoned by a hundred and ten men only; but contained a great number of cannon, mortars, military ſtores, proviſions and goods. Nine armed veſſels were alſo taken. The whole was effected without bloodſhed, and the fort demoliſhed. During theſe tranſactions, Gen. Forbes marched from Philadelphia, with a conſiderable body of troops, to attack the French fort, Duqueſne. After paſſing the mountains, he detached Col. Bouquet, with two thouſand men, to a poſition fifty miles in advance. This officer ſent major Grant forward with eight hundred men to reconnoiter the fort and country. The detachment met a ſuperior French force, and was defeated with the loſs of major Grant, and three hundred men. But the French, not willing to riſk a ſiege

abandoned the fort, and retired down the Ohio. General Forbes took poſſeſſion and gave it the name of Pittſburg, which the town ſince built continues to bear.

Of the Operations of General Amherſt. In 1759, the efforts of the Britiſh and Americans to reduce the French were more ſucceſsful. General Amherſt, with the main army, croſſed lake George, to lay ſeige to Ticonderoga; but the French abandoned that poſt and Crown Point. General Amherſt took poſſeſſion, repaired the fort at Ticonderoga, and leaving a ſtrong garriſon in it, proceeded to Crown Point, where he built a new fort. Here he built a ſloop of ſixteen guns and a large boat for ſix guns, with a brig. With theſe and his battoes, he embarked to proceed down the lake, but he was baffled by tempeſtuous weather. The land forces were compelled to return, but the armed veſſels proceeded and drove aſhore three of the French veſſels. General Amherſt ſpent the winter in completing the fortifications at Crown Point, and in opening roads to the colonies.

Of the Reduction of Niagara. During theſe tranſactions, general Prideaux laid ſeige to the French fort at Niagara, in the proſecution of which he was killed, and the command devolved on Sir William Johnſon. This officer urged the ſeige, and defeated a party of troops, coming from Detroit and Venango, to the relief of the place. This ſucceſs haſtened the ſurrender of the fort, which capitulated the laſt week in July. This was a valuable acquiſition, as well as the poſſeſſion of Crown Point, and Ticonderoga.

Of the Victory of General Wolfe, and Surrender of Quebec. The forces deſtined againſt Quebec were entruſted to General Wolfe, a young officer, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf, the preceding year, at the ſeige of Lewiſburg. The army, amounting to eight thouſand men, landed on the iſland of Orleans, below Quebec, in June. Quebec ſtands on a rock, at the confluence of Charles River and the Iroquois; it is naturally ſtrong, and was well fortified and defended by a

ſuperior force under General Montcalm. General Wolfe had to contend with immenſe difficulties, and a detachment of his troops attacking the French entrenchments, at the falls of Montmorence, was repulſed with the loſs of five hundred men. At length, the Britiſh troops landed in the night and aſcended a ſteep, craggy cliff, to an elevated place which commanded the town. This compelled the French to hazard a battle, which was fought on the 13th of September; in which General Wolfe was killed, and the French General Montcalm, mortally wounded; but the French were defeated; and in a few days the town was ſurrendered to General Townſend upon capitulation.

Of the Operations at Quebec in the year 1760. General Murray, with ſix thouſand troops, was left to garriſon Quebec. By means of the rigors of the climate, and a want of freſh proviſions, one thouſand of theſe men died, before ſpring, with the ſcurvy and two thouſand were diſabled from duty. Near the cloſe of April, the French troops, which had been collected during the winter, to the number of ten thouſand, attacked General Murray, and defeated his ſmall army, with conſiderable loſs. But General Murray retreated to the town, which he bravely defended, againſt ſuperior numbers, until the arrival of a ſquadron of ſhips, and the deſtruction of the French ſhips in the river, induced the French commander, Vaudrueil, to abandon the ſeige.

Of the final Reduction of Canada. Early in the ſummer of 1760, General Amherſt put in motion his troops, with a view to attack Montreal, the laſt fortreſs of conſequence remaining in the hands of the French. Advancing from Albany to the lake, he took the French fort, at Iſle Royal, and proceeded down the Iroquois, to Montreal, where he was joined by General Murray from Quebec. While preparing to lay ſeige to the place, Vaudreuil made offers of capitulation, which were accepted, and the town was ſurrendered on the 7th of September. A ſmall French ſquadron, ſent

with provision and stores to relieve the troops at Montreal, was destroyed by Captain Byron in the bay of Chaleurs. The inhabitants of Canada submitted and took the oath of allegiance to the British crown. Thus, after a century of wars, massacres, and destruction, committed by the French and savages, the colonies were secured from ferocious invaders, and Canada, with a valuable trade in furs, came under the British dominion.

Of the Expedition of Col. Montgomery. While the troops were conquering Canada, the Cherokees, a powerful tribe of savages, were committing outrages on the frontiers of Virginia and Carolina. Governor Lyttleton of South Carolina, with a body of colonial troops, entered the country and obliged the Indians to sue for peace, which was granted. But the savages violated the treaty and attempted to surprize a fort on the frontiers of Carolina. General Amherst, on application, sent Col. Montgomery, with twelve hundred troops, to protect the southern colonies. This officer penetrated into the heart of the Cherokee country, plundering and destroying all the villages and magazines of corn. In revenge, the savages beseiged fort Loudon, on the confines of Virginia; the garrison, after being reduced to extreme distress, capitulated; but on their March towards Carolina, a body of savages fell upon the party and murdered five and twenty of them, with all the officers, except Capt. Stuart.

Of the Progress and Termination of this War. Col. Montgomery being obliged by his orders to return to Canada, the Carolinians were alarmed for the safety of the colony, and prevailed with him to leave four companies of men for their defense. Canada being entirely subdued, General Amherst sent Col. Grant, with a body of troops, who landed at Charleston early in 1761. These troops, being joined by a regiment of colonial forces under Col. Middleton, undertook an expedition into the Cherokee country; in which they defeated the savages, with the loss of fifty or sixty of

their own men. After destroying fourteen Indian towns, with the corn and stores, the troops repaired to fort Prince George for rest and refreshment. In a few days after, several chiefs of the Indians arrived with proposals of peace, which were gladly received, and peace concluded.

Of the Conclusion of the War in Europe, and the Peace of Paris. The reduction of Canada, and to the expulsion of the French from the Ohio, put an end to important military operations in America. The great purpose of the war, which was expel or cripple the power of the French, on the western frontiers, was happily accomplished. In Europe, the war continued to rage, and in the West Indies, the British, aided by colonial troops, took Havanna from the Spaniards in 1762; an expedition in which multitudes of men fell victims to the bilious plague. But on the 10th of February, 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Paris, by which the French king ceded Nova Scotia, Cape Breton and Canada to the British king, and the middle of the Mississippi, from its source to the river Ibbervil, and the middle of that river to the sea, was made the boundary between the British and French dominions in America. Spain ceded to Great Britain Florida, and all her possessions to the east of the Mississippi. Such was the state of the European possessions in America, at the commencement of the revolution.

SECTION X.

Bills of Credit.

Of the History of Paper Money.

AFTER the year 1660, while the people of America were subject to the crown of Great Britain, their commerce was entirely regulated by acts of par

liament, which limited and restrained the trade of the colonies principally to British ports. By this means the colonies were deprived of the benefit of many of the best markets for their produce; and the enterprizing spirit of the inhabitants was checked, or rendered subservient to the politic views of the parent state. In consequence of these disadvantages, the balance of trade was usually against the colonies; that is, they imported goods to a greater value than they exported; and the difference was paid in specie, as long as it could be procured. This unprofitable trade exhausted the colonies of money, to a distressing degree; and when the public exigences called for extraordinary taxes, the people could not pay them in cash. For a long period, taxes were paid in produce, which was deposited in public stores and sold to raise money. But this was very troublesome and expensive; and the colonies adopted the plan of issuing bills of credit for a medium of trade, in lieu of specie.

Of the first Emission of Bills of Credit in Massachusetts. The colony of Massachusetts, in 1652 coined, into small pieces, a quantity of silver bullion taken from the Spaniards, or received from the West Indies, in the course of trade. The pieces bore the figure of a pine tree, and circulated in New England. This practice continued more than thirty years, and this was the only instance of a mint in the colonies. But this coinage extended only to small change, and could not supply the requisit cash for the colony. The unfortunate expedition against Quebec in 1690, had created a considerable debt against Massachusetts, which there was no money in the treasury to pay. When the soldiers returned, they clamored for their wages—a tax was laid to raise the money—but to prevent a mutiny, the colony issued bills of credit which were to be received in payment of the tax. With these *the soldiers* were paid; the value of them sunk immediately one third; but as the bills were receivable on

the tax, as the time of payment approached, they gradually appreciated.

Of the subsequent Emissions of Paper Money. To defray the expenses of another expedition against Quebec in 1711, Massachusetts issued a large sum in bills of credit, and in 1714 and 1716 no less than the value of half a million of dollars. Besides these sums, the colony had, from time to time, issued bills to pay the expenses of government, and neglected to redeem the bills, until their depreciation, and its consequent evils had alarmed the crown, and a royal order had been sent to the governor to restrain all further emissions, until the bills extant, should be redeemed. Many schemes were projected to preserve the value of the bills—some part of them were lent to individuals on security—others rested on the faith of government, which was pledged to redeem them—in one case a private company was formed to support their declining credit. But all expedients failed, and in 1749, when the sums in circulation, amounted to more than seven millions of dollars, the value had sunk to about one twelfth of the value of specie.

Of the Redemption of the Massachusetts Bills. The honorable efforts of Massachusetts in the conquest of Lewisburg, had induced the parliament of Great Britain, to grant one hundred and eighty thousand pounds sterling, to indemnify that colony for her expenses. While the bill for this grant was depending, the legislature of Massachusetts passed an act that, with the specie which was expected from England, the bills of credit should be purchased, at the rate of fifty shillings in paper for an ounce of silver, or nearly seven and a half for one. This act was fortunately carried into effect, tho much against popular clamor, and thus was redeemed the largest part of the paper currency. The remainder was directed to be paid into the treasury upon taxes, and an end was put to a multitude of frauds, and numberless public evils, arising from the circulation of a depreciated currency.

Of the Paper Currency of South Carolina. In 1702, Governor Moore of South Carolina, raſhly undertook an expedition againſt St. Auguſtine, a Spaniſh town in Eaſt Florida; the plan was diſconcerted by the arrival of two Spaniſh ſhips and abandoned, in a cowardly manner. As the colony then did not contain more than ſeven or eight thouſand white people, the expenſes of the expedition were too conſiderable to be defrayed by an ordinary tax; and the colony iſſued bills of credit for the purpoſe. This was the firſt experiment. As the ſum was not large, the bills anſwered a good purpoſe, and for ſome years retained their value. But the war againſt the Tuſcaroras and other ſavages in 1712, creating another heavy debt, the colony iſſued forty thouſand pounds, which was lent on landed or perſonal ſecurity, and made payable into the treaſury in ten inſtalments of four thouſand pounds each. This ſum was ſo large that the value ſpeedily ſunk one half, and ultimately to one ſeventh. The depreciation cauſed great uneaſineſs—the planters paying their debts to their creditors and the merchants, in a medium of leſs value than gold and ſilver. The rate of exchange remained at ſeven for one, until meaſures were taken to redeem the bills.

Of the Bills of Credit in New York and Pennſylvania. The firſt iſſuing of a paper currency in New York, was in 1709, and the occaſion was the great expenſe of the fruitleſs preparations for attacking Canada, in that year. The ſums firſt iſſued were not large, and ſuch regulations were adopted for redeeming the paper, as to prevent, in a great meaſure, the evils of depreciation. Conſiderable ſums were afterwards emitted, and gradually called into the treaſury and cancelled. In 1722, Penſylvania iſſued her firſt paper currency, amounting to fifteen thouſand pounds—by ſubſequent emiſſions the ſum was augmented to eighty thouſand pounds, which ſum was extant in 1740. This paper was made a legal tender; ſo that creditors were obliged to take it as gold and ſilver. As it ſuf-

ed ſome depreciation, the proprietaries were alarm-
for fear they ſhould receive their rents in a depreciа-
medium; and oppoſed the emiſſion of paper until
aſſembly had made them a grant to ſecure to them
full value of their rents in ſterling money.

General Remarks on Bills of Credit. All the colonies
ner or later iſſued bills of credit to ſupply the place
ſpecie, which was ſcarce and not ſufficient for a cur-
t medium. In thoſe colonies where the paper was
nediately called in by taxes and duties, it depreciа-
but little; in others, it ſunk to a low value; and
e debtors an opportunity to defraud their creditors,
paying them in a depreciated currency. As the pa-
could not circulate in foreign countries, it would
anſwer for a remittance for goods imported; mer-
nts of courſe preferred ſpecie to paper, and gold
l ſilver roſe in value. In ſhort, a paper currency
ile the country was rapidly ſettling, and its trade re-
ted, was very uſeful in many reſpects; but it alſo
duced great evils. It gave riſe to unceaſing jeal-
y and contentions, between the royal and propri-
y governors and the aſſemblies of the colonies;
the governors ſtrenuouſly oppoſed the iſſuing of pa-
. Had the colonies been indulged in a free trade,
y would have had gold and ſilver enough; but an
reſtrained commerce could not be enjoyed, until the
onies became independent.

*Of the Origin of the different Rates of Coin in the
onies.* For almoſt a century after the ſettlement of
nerica, the Engliſh colonies rated coins in ſterling
ney, as in Great Britain. But the ſcarcity of mon-
finally called for a remedy, and ſome of the colo-
s attempted to remove the difficulty, by paſſing laws
raiſe the nominal value of foreign coins. This oc-
ioned a royal proclamation, in the ſixth year of
ueen Ann, A. D. 1708, which fixed the current
minal value of coins in the colonies, at one fourth
ve the *nominal* value in ſterling money; ſo that a

dollar, which was four ſhillings and ſixpence ſterl paſſed for ſix ſhillings. In New England and Virgi this became and ſtill remains, the current denomi tion. But in ſome of the colonies, the depreciatio their paper currency, the ſcarcity of money, and current rate of exchange between paper and ſpe raiſed the nominal value of ſilver and gold ſtill higl In New Jerſey, Penſylvania and Maryland, the v of the dollar was eſtabliſhed and continues at ſe ſhillings and ſixpence; in New York and North C lina, at eight ſhillings. In South Carolina and G gia, it roſe only to four and eight pence; or two pe in the dollar above the ſterling value. But theſe differences merely in name, for the real value is ſame in all the ſtates; in other words the pound a the ſhilling differ in value, but not the dollar.

SECTION XI.

PIRACY.

Of piracy in the American Seas.

IN the two firſt centuries, after the Spaniards ſett in America, the land and the ſea were infeſted pirates and freebooters, to a degree never before kno in the civilized world. Theſe robbers had their o gin among ſome miſerable fugitives of the French tion, who had begun a plantation in St. Kitts, a being diſpoſſeſſed by the Spaniards, fled to the nor ern part of Hiſpaniola. There they lived at firſt hunting ſwine and cattle which abounded in the mo tains, and there acquired the name of *bucaneers*, fr the practice of drying and preſerving their beef a pork, called in French, *boucaner*. After living fo time in this manner, ſome of them became cultivato others betook themſelves to piracy. Many of th ſettled on the iſland, Tortuga, near the coaſt of

paniola; and being accuſtomed to an unreſtrained equality, they lived in a ſtate of democracy, every man being the maſter of his own family; the commander of a boat or ſhip was liable to be diſcarded by the crew, and in a diviſion of the plunder, he had only a ſingle ſhare like a private, unleſs given to him as a gratuity.

Of the Ravages of the Bucaneers. Theſe lawleſs freebooters fortified themſelves in Tortuga; and forming themſelves into ſmall companies, ſallied forth in queſt of plunder by ſea and land. They had a ſpecial antipathy to the Spaniards, and when they found a ſhip alone, they boldly grappled and boarded her; uſually putting all the crew to death. When loaded with plunder, they returned and divided it with the moſt ſcrupulous juſtice; then ſpent their time in all kinds of vice and debauchery, until their booty was expended. Enjoying a perfect ſtate of liberty and equality, there was no law to reſtrain their exceſſes, and when their plunder was gone, they were reduced to want and miſery—They then went forth to ſeek more plunder, and pillage honeſt and induſtrious men. At length, their number was ſo increaſed by deſperate fellows from France, Holland and England, that they became formidable to all Spaniſh America. They compoſed an army of twelve hundred men, and attacked ſeveral Spaniſh towns on the continent, murdering the people, and plundering the houſes. In 1697, they took Carthagena, and effects to the value of ſeven or eight millions of dollars; but on their return, they met a fleet of Dutch and Engliſh ſhips, which took and ſunk a number of theirs. This gave them a check from which they never recovered. They were hunted by the nations of Europe, and partly by force and partly by encouragements to cultivation, this neſt of villans was deſtroyed.

Of Piracies on the American Coaſt. The ſpirit of piracy extended in a greater or leſs degree to the *Eaſt Indies, and to the* North American colonies. Above

the year 1699, one Bradiſh a boatſwains mate, in an Engliſh ſhip bound to India, in an illegal voyage, conſpired with the crew, left the captain on an iſland, and turned pirate. Coming to America to depoſit his ſpoil, Bradiſh was taken, ſent priſoner to England and executed. One Kidd was ſtill more notorious. This man was maſter of a veſſel and ſailed from New-York, where he had a family. Being in London, he was ſelected, upon recommendation, to command a ſhip fitted out for the expreſs purpoſe of ſuppreſſing piracies in India. But he turned pirate himſelf, ſailed to India and there begun the practice of robbing. Returning to America, he landed and appeared openly at Boſton, where he was taken, ſent to England, and executed. The trade of Carolina ſuffered greatly by a neſt of pirates ſettled at New Providence which became a receptacle of vagabonds, after the proprietors of Carolina had releaſed their right to the Bahamas to a company of merchants. The gulf of Florida was at their command, and the trade to the Weſt Indies was almoſt ruined. The miniſtry in England charged the colonies with harboring thoſe lawleſs raſcals; but without foundation. After many years, and great exertions, the ſeas were cleared of freebooters.

SECTION XII.

Diseases and Remarkable Events.

Of the Diſeaſes that afflicted the Colonies and other remarkable Events.

THE firſt ſettlers in America had to contend with hardſhips, ſcarcity of proviſions, a degree of cold in winter and heat in ſummer, which they had not experienced in Europe, and with the diſeaſes of the country, to which were added ſuch as roſe from their wants and toil. In 1620, half of the Plymouth ſet-

tlers died, and in 1630, the colony of Massachusetts lost more than one hundred, by fevers and the scurvy. In 1633, the colony of Plymouth lost twenty of its inhabitants, by an epidemic pestilential fever. In 1635, the mortality in Virginia, by the accounts then received in New England, extended to eighteen hundred persons.—On the first of June 1638, was a severe convulsion of the earth; called the great earthquake. This was succeeded by a general prevalence of the small pox and fevers, on which account, a general fast was observed in December. Shocks of the earth were repeated at times, till December, when they were frequent. Two tremendous storms happened, the same year, one in August and the other in December, in which the tide rose fourteen feet above spring tides, at Narraganset, and flowed twice in six hours. Another tempest equally severe occurred on the 16th of March, old style, in 1639, and such a rain that the Connecticut rose twenty feet above the meddows.

Continuation of remarkable Events. On the fifth of March 1643, was another violent earthquake in New England; but no damage was sustained. The preceding summer had been wet and cold; crops of corn were indifferent; English grain had suffered in an unusual degree, by wild pegions; and in winter, the barns were infested by such numbers of mice, as were never before known. These animals were so numerous as to eat the bark of the fruit trees, about the roots, under the snow. These causes occasioned a derth, and many families, their corn being exhausted in April, were compelled to live on clams and fish. In 1647 happened the first influenza mentioned in the annals of America. It extended to the West Indies, where it was immediately followed by a malignant fever, so fatal and infectious as to be called the plague. In Barbadoes and St. Kitts, it swept away five or six thousand people; seizing first the most hale, robust men. This is the first distinct account of the epidem-

ic yellow fever, mentioned in our hiſtories. A peſtilential fever prevailed in Hartford, the ſame year, of which died the Rev. Mr. Hooker.

Continuation of remarkable Events. A ſlight earthquake was felt in New England in October 1653. Some general ſickneſs prevailed in Maſſachuſetts; for in the ſpring of the next year, a faſt was appointed in Connecticut, for which one reaſon aſſigned, in the proclamation was "the mortality which had been among the people of Maſſachuſetts." In 1655, another influenza ſpread over New England. In 1658 epidemic diſeaſe again prevailed, on which account, and the ſcarcity of grain and intemperate ſeaſon, a faſt was obſerved in Connecticut. In 1659, the diſeaſe called rattles, hives, or croop firſt appeared in the colonies. In 1662 happened in New England, an earthquake, a ſevere drouth, and epidemic diſeaſe; on the abatement of which our pious anceſtors kept a day of thankſgiving. In 1668, a malignant ſickneſs prevailed in New York and occaſioned the appointment of a faſt in September. In 1677 the ſmall pox raged in Charleſtown, in Maſſachuſetts, with the mortality of the plague; and in the following year, it prevailed in Boſton.

Continuation of remarkable Events. In 1683, great ſickneſs prevailed, and the people ſought the throne of grace by a general faſt. During the winter, a fever ſo general and ſo fatal prevailed in Springfield in Maſſachuſetts, that the public worſhip on Sundays was ſuſpended.—A ſimilar diſeaſe afflicted the ſame town in 1711, in 1733 and 1761. It raged at Hartford in 1717. Fairfield ſuffered equally by a malignant fever in 1698 after the influenza—Waterbury in 1713—Bethlem in 1750 and 1760—Eaſt Haven was repeatedly viſited, and ſtripped of a great part of its moſt robuſt men. The laſt time, was in 1761. This violent fever prevailed in many other places, with great mortality, but has not been epidemic ſince 1761. In 1702 New York was ſorely viſited with a peſtilential fever—almoſt all the patients died. Philadelphia and

harleſton, in S. Carolina ſuffered by a like diſeaſe in 699. On the 29th of October 1727 occurred an rthquake in New England, as violent as any of the rmer ones. Slighter ſhocks are not infrequent. On ıe 18th of November 1755, happened a ſhock of milar violence, but no injury was ſuſtained.

Continuation of Remarkable Events. The influenza revailed in 1733, and ſpread over the world. In 1735 mmenced the ſcarlet fever, or malignant ſore throat, Kingſton, an inland town in New Hampſhire, and fited moſt parts of America, in that and the follow- g year. This was its firſt appearance in America, as ır as could be recollected. Before that period, the ſual form of diſeaſe in the throat, was that of a quin- y, which was often malignant and fatal. From the ear 1735 to 1800, the malignant ſore throat was epi- emic, ſix times, in the northern ſtates. The influen- a from 1732 to 1800 prevailed nine times, as an epi- emic. The long fever, ſo called becauſe it continued hirty or forty days, was formerly very common in Jew England, but has almoſt diſappeared in the older ettlements.

Of unuſual Seaſons. The ſeaſons in all countries, ı the temperate climates, are very variable. The inter of 1633—4 was mild—the wind moſtly from ıe ſouthward, with little ſnow till February, and no eat froſt. That was followed by cold winters, and 1637 or 8, the winter was noted as unuſually ſe- re; the ſnow lay about four feet deep from the mid- e of November to the firſt week in April. But the inter of 1641—2 was of the ſevereſt kind—Boſton y was a bridge of ice as far as the eye could ſee—and e Cheſopeek alſo was frozen. The Indians told our ceſtors that ſuch a winter had not been in forty years. ſimilar winter occurred in 1697—8. The four- nth day of December O. S. 1709 was ſuppoſed to the coldeſt day that had then been known in Ameri- In February 1717 fell the greateſt ſnow ever own in this or perhaps any country. It covered the

lower doors of houſes, ſo that ſome people were obliged to ſtep out of their chamber windows on ſnow ſhoes. There was alſo a terrible tempeſt. Eleven hundred ſheep, belonging to one man, periſhed. One flock of a hundred, was dug out of a ſnow drift on Fiſher's iſland, where they had been buried to the depth of ſixteen feet. This was twenty eight days after the ſtorm, when two of them were found alive, having ſubſiſted on the wool of the others, and they ſuſtained no injury.

Continuation of Unuſual Seaſons. A memorable tempeſt is recorded to have happened on the 24th of February 1723, which raiſed the tide ſeveral feet above the uſual ſpring tides, and did incredible damage on the eaſtern ſhore of New England. The winter of 1737—8 was extremely ſevere; but far leſs ſevere than that which cloſed the year 1740. A ſimilar winter followed the ſummer of 1779, when all the rivers and bays, even the Cheſopeek, were converted into bridges of ice. The ſevere cold was of three months duration, and the ſnow from three to four feet deep. Mild winters alſo occur frequently—as in 1755 and 6—1774—5—1794—5—and 1801—2 when there was little froſt and ſnow.

Of Days of unuſual Obſcurity or Darkneſs. Hiſtorians have mentioned many inſtances of extreme darkneſs, in the day time, and in ſome caſes, this obſcurity has laſted ſeveral days. Inſtances happened in Europe, in the years 252, 746—and 775. The firſt inſtance mentioned in our annals was on the 21ſt of October 1716—the ſecond on the 9th of Auguſt 1732.—A ſimilar obſcurity happened in Canada and on the Lakes, on the 19th of October 1762; and on three different days in October 1785. On the 19th of May 1780, a memorable darkneſs was ſpread over all the northern ſtates. The obſcurity was occaſioned by a thick vapor or cloud, tinged with a yellow color or *faint* red, and a thin coat of duſt was depoſited on *white* ſubſtances. In theſe inſtances, the obſcurity

was ſo great as to render candles or lamps neceſſary at noon day. The darkneſs in Canada was followed by ſqualls of wind, ſevere thunder—and in one inſtance by a meteor or fire ball. So ignorant were moſt people of this phenomenon, that many were exceſſively frightened; altho it had occurred three times at leaſt within the period of ſixty five years.

Of the Northern Lights. From the earlieſt times, we have ſome imperfect accounts of lights in the ſky; and ſuperſtition has repreſented them as the forerunners of bloody wars and other calamities. Sometimes hiſtorians ſpeak of them as troops of men, armed and ruſhing to battle. Such repreſentations are the effuſions of weak and timid minds; theſe lights and all others in the atmoſphere proceeding from natural cauſes, are no more the harbingers of evil than a ſhower of rain or a blaſt of wind. For about three hundred years paſt, our accounts of the northern lights, are tolerably correct. There was a diſcontinuance of them eighty or ninety years, anterior to 1707, when a ſmall light was ſeen by perſons in Europe. But they did not reappear, in full ſplendor, till the year 1716, when they were obſerved in England. Their firſt appearance in America was December 11, 1719, when they were remarkably bright, and as people in general had never heard of ſuch a phenomenon, they were extremely alarmed, with the apprehenſion of the approach of the final judgment. All amuſements, all buſineſs, and even ſleep was interrupted, for want of a little knowlege of hiſtory. From 1719 to 1790, theſe lights were frequent, when they again diſappeared, for a long period.

Of Diſeaſes among the Brutes. The brutes have at times peſtilential diſeaſes which ſweep them away in multitudes. A plague among cattle deſtroyed a great part of the ſpecies in Germany about the year 800. The ſame happened in Italy and Germany, in 1713, among cattle and horſes. A like mortality among cattle happened in Holland and ſome parts of England

in 1751. Fortunately, no similar plague among useful animals has ever happened in America; altho at times, there has been considerable mortality among horses and cattle. In 1514, the cats in Europe perished by a pestilential disease, as they did lately in Europe and America, in 1797. In 1763, dogs, sheeps, mules, poultry, swine and horses, in several countries of Europe, were swept away by unusual diseases. In 1764, the blue fish all perished or abandoned the shores of Nantucket, where they had always been in great plenty. In 1775 the oysters at Wellfleet, on Cape Cod all perished, and have never since grown on the same banks. In 1788, the cod fish on the grand bank of Newfoundland were mostly thin and ill flavored. In 1789, the haddock, on the coast of Norway, mostly or all died, and floating on the surface, covered many leagues of water. In 1799, the small fish on the coast of North Carolina shared a like fate. At times, oysters are found to be watry, sickly and ill flavored; dogs, wolves and foxes are affected with madness—and the wild fowls perish by epidemic diseases.

SECTION XIII.

Controversies and their Effects.

Of the Evils of Dissensions among the Colonies.

THE most fruitful source of public evils among the American colonies, was, the want of union and concert of measures, proceeding from their jealousies and different views and interests. Each colony exercised a seperate jurisdiction over a certain tract of land, and so jealous was each of its rights, that blood was shed in defending a claim to an exclusive trade in beaver on a particular river, when millions of that animal were to be found in the unoccupied wilderness. Uncertain boundaries also originated numerous contro-

verſies, and litigations, which excited no ſmall degree of animoſity among the colonies, ſome of which laſted more than a hundred years. The antipathy between Rhode Iſland and the other colonies, on account of differences in religious and civil matters, and in morals had ſcarcely ſubſided at the revolution.

Of the Effects of Diſſenſions in the Defenſe of the Colonies. The ill effect of a want of union was firſt felt, in 1637, in the Pequot war. Three governments were to be conſulted, and altho all agreed in the neceſſity of reducing the Pequots, yet for want of unity of power and effort, the Connecticut forces arrived firſt at the field of action, and to prevent notice of their arrival from reaching the Indians, they were obliged to attack the fort alone; and altho they ſucceeded beyond expectation, yet it was a deſperate attempt and might have been fatal to the aſſailants. Had the colonies been under the ſame juriſdiction, the troops might have been aſſembled at the ſame time, and acted with united force. In 1694, the commiſſioners of the united colonies declared war againſt Ninigrate, a Narraganſet chief; and their forces were entruſted to the command of Major Willard of Maſſachuſetts, who marched into the enemy's country, but did nothing effectual, and returned on frivolous pretexts.—It was owing to the averſion of Maſſachuſetts to the war that the plan of the colonies was fruſtrated. In 1676, during Philip's war, the colonies determined on ſubduing the Narreganſets; but the people of Rhode Iſland, who were moſt expoſed, left their ſettlements to be defended by the troops of the other colonies, and did not join in the attack and reduction of the fort.

Of the want of Concert in other Expeditions. The united colonies, Maſſachuſetts, Plymouth and Connecticut, were zealouſly engaged in one common cauſe, during the war with Philip and his aſſociates. But the troops of each, acting often at a diſtance, under ſeparate commanders, often failed to afford aſſiſtance to *parties, forts* or towns in diſtreſs, for want

a unity of councils and designs. Many whole towns and whole companies of men would probably have been saved, if one will had directed all their operations. Capt. Lathrop and his company, who fell into an ambuscade, between Deerfield and Hadley, and were cut to pieces, would have escaped, but for want of union and concert of measures; for two or three companies were within a few miles, marching to join them.

Of the weakness of the Confederation of 1643. Altho the union of the four infant settlements produced very good effects, by giving them harmony of councils, and strength of action, yet it was not sufficient to prevent jealousies, divisions, and the consequent evils. Springfield, when first settled, was supposed to be under the jurisdiction of Connecticut, but was afterwards claimed by Massachusetts, and until the divisional line was run, a controversy subsisted between the colonies on that account. But a more serious dispute arose on account of a duty which Connecticut imposed on goods, belonging to Springfield, exported from the river; which duty was applied to the maintenance of a fort at Saybrook, to protect the river settlements, especially against the Dutch. The question, concerning the right to lay the duty, agitated the colonies, and when the commissioners decided in favor of Connecticut, Massachusetts, by way of retaliation, laid a similar duty on goods, passing the fort in Boston harbor. This law did not escape the censure of the commissioners, but the confederacy had no power to restrain these differences.

Of the Weakness of the Confederation continued. In the year 1653, the commissioners of the colonies took into consideration, the question of making war on the Dutch, who had driven the New Haven settlers from the lands they had purchased on the Delaware, and burnt their fort; who had constantly sold arms and ammunition to the savages, which exposed the colonies to extirpation; and who, on the rupture between

ngland and Holland, had attempted to engage the ndians in a plot to deſtroy the Engliſh. The com- niſſioners of Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven greed on the neceſſity of a war to put a ſtop to ſuch utrages and a dangerous conſpiracy; but thoſe of Maſſachuſetts oppoſed it, and no arguments or powers f perſuaſion availed. The legiſlature of Maſſachuſetts enied the authority of the commiſſioners to declare var; alleging that each colony was a ſovereignty, and ould not be ſubject to another ſovereign power. The ther colonies held this to be a direct violation of the rticles of union—but the confederation was a rope f ſand. The ſavages continued to purchaſe arms and mmunition of the Dutch; and by the time of Phil- p's war, they were well furniſhed and well acquainted vith arms. This proved the principal cauſe of that var and its horrors.

Of the fatal Effects of Diſunion in 1690. On the ac- ceſſion of king William to the throne of England, a plan was formed in New England to take Canada. Com- miſſioners from the colonies met at New York and greed upon a plan of operations. A fleet under Sir William Phips was to ſail from Boſton to Quebec, nd a body of troops from Connecticut and New York vas to advance by land to the lakes and Montreal. The fleet arrived before Quebec, tho late in the ſeaſon; ut the land forces, after proceeding to the lake, were bliged to retreat for want of canoes, and proviſions. Theſe articles were to be furniſhed by a commiſſary f New York; but he failed. The colony of New- ork was diſtracted with factions under the uſurpa- on of Leſler. General Winthrop, who commanded he forces, was blamed for retreating; but was fully xculpated by a court of inqury. In truth, the plan f cooperation with the fleet was fruſtrated for want f a common head or government over the colonies, hich would have given union, concert and energy the whole ſyſtem of meaſures. There is no doubt

and Rhode Island; and the latter deliberated so lo
that her troops did not arrive, till after the garri
had surrendered: So that the troops of three colo
only, of which Massachusetts furnished four fift
were employed in that important service. In sh
nothing prevented the expulsion of the French fr
Canada sixty or seventy years sooner than it happen
but the weakness of the colonies, resulting from a
vision of their power, and the jealousy of their counc
And it is very evident that in those seventy years,
French, and Indians in their employment, killed tw
ty thousand men, women and children; which
greatly retarded the population of the northern sta
Had Canada been conquered in 1690, and retai
under the British government, it is probable this
of America, would have had, in the year 1800, t
hundred thousand inhabitants, beyond the pres
number.

onological Table of the moſt remarkable its, in or reſpecting America, intended as utline of American Hiſtory.

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real name was Chriſtoval ich was latinized into Columbus.

Bartholomew Columbus, governor of Iſabella, built New Iſabella on the ſouth ſide of Hayti and on the eaſt bank of the river Ozama, to which he removed the colony 1496

Ch. Columbus returned to Spain, March 1496

Henry VII. granted a commiſſion to John Cabot and his three ſons, Lewis, Sebaſtian and Sanctius, to make diſcoveries of unknown countries, and to erect the king's banners on lands which *they had already diſcovered*, March 5 1496

King Henry gave a licenſe to John Cabot to take ſix veſſels from any port, for making diſcoveries, Feb. 3 1498

Sebaſtian Cabot ſailed to America, diſcovered the land afterwards named Labrador, June 11, O. S. [22d.] and ranged along the coaſt to Florida.—He was the firſt diſcoverer of the American continent 1497 or 1498

Ch. Columbus ſailed from Spain on his third voyage May 30, diſcovered Trinidad July 31, and the continent now Terra Firma, Auguſt 1 1498

Ojeda who was with Columbus in his firſt voyage accompanied by Amerigo Veſpucci, a Florentine, ſailed from Spain May 20th, and in June diſcovered the continent of S. America, and Ameri-

go had the addreſs to give the continent his name 1499
Vincent Y. Pinzon ſailed ſouthward, diſcovered the great river Maranon which he called Amazon 1500
Pedro A. Cabral, a Portugueſe, diſcovered the coaſt now called Braſil
Bovadilla appointed governor of America, ſent Columbus to Spain in chains, Aug. 23
Cortereal, a Portugueſe, ſailed to Newfoundland and gave name to Labrador
The town of New Iſabella being deſtroyed by a hurricane, was rebuilt on the weſt ſide of Ozama. The name was afterward changed to St. Domingo, and this is the oldeſt town in America 1502
Columbus being acquitted, ſailed on his 4th voyage June 3, arrived at Hayti June 29, ſailed to the continent, diſcovered the bay of Honduras, alſo named Porto Bello, Aug. to Nov.
Columbus ſhipwrecked on Jamaica 1503
Columbus relieved after being almoſt a year on Jamaica, arrived at Hayti, and ſailed for Spain Sept. 2, arrived at St. Lucar in December 1504
Adventurers from Biſcay and the north of France began a fiſhery on the banks of Newfoundland
Columbus died at Valladolid aged 58, May 20 1506
The ſugar cane introduced into Hayti from the Canary iſlands about this time
J. D. de Solis, and V. Y. Pinzon diſcovered the great river Paraguay, called alſo river of plate or ſilver 1508
Africans firſt introduced into Hayti for ſlaves
Ojeda and Nicueſſa began a ſettlement at the gulf of Darien. Ovando ſettled Porto Rico, and Eſquivel began a ſettlement on Jamaica 1510
John Ponce de Leon diſcovered and named *Florida*, from its being diſcovered Eaſter Day or feaſt of flowers 1512
Vaſco Nunez de Balboa diſcovered the South ſea or Pacific Ocean 1513
J. de Grijalva diſcovered Mexico and named it New Spain 1518
Fernando Cortez ſailed to Mexico, March 1519, after ſevere conteſts ſubdued Mexico Auguſt 21, 1521
Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe, in the ſervice of Spain, entered the ſtrait now called by his name, Nov. 11, 1520, proceeded to the Phillippines where he was killed; but one of his ſhips arrived in Spain in 1522—this being the firſt voyage round the globe
Pizarro, with Almagro and Luque invaded Peru 1531
Pizarro founded St. Michael, the firſt Spaniſh colony in Peru 1532
Pizarro took Cuzco, the capital of Peru, after having taken Atahualpa, the Inca, and put him to

death 1533
P. Mendoza failed to the Paraguay with 2000 men, built Buenos Ayres, and and first introduced horſes, which have multiplied beyond calculation
Ferdinand de Soto landed in Florida with 900 men, 1539, penetrated to the Chickaſaw country, croſſed the Miſſiſippi where he died May 21, 1542, the remains of his men arrived in Mexicoin 1543
Orellana entered the river Maranon and deſcended to its mouth 1541
Chili conquered by the Spaniards
The mines of Potoſi diſcovered 1545
Peſtilence in Peru, in Mexico 800,000 perſons periſhed 1546
Ribaud with French proteſtants, began a ſettlement on the Ediſto; but the people abandoned the place, and on their return, ſome periſhed by famin 1562
John Hawkins began the ſlave trade of the Engliſh 1563
Laudonier ſailed with 3 ſhips to relieve Ribaud; but ſtopped at May river, now St. John's, built a fort called Caroline 1564
Ribaud ſailed to Florida, took a part of the men from fort Caroline to oppoſe a Spaniſh fleet; Melandez, a Spaniſh officer, arrived, maſſacred moſt of the French, and garriſoned the place with Spaniards 1565
Bourge, a Gaſcon, failed to Florida and maſſacred the Spaniards, and Florida was abandoned 1568
M. Frobiſher attempted to find a N. Weſt paſſage, diſcovered the ſtrait of his name 1576
Peſtilence in Mexico, by which died, as appeared by regiſters, 2 millions of perſons. Sir Walter Raleigh obtained a patent for making diſcoveries, March 25 1584
Amidas and Barlow, by order of ſir W. Raleigh, landed on Wocokon and Roanoke, July. On their return, the Queen gave to the country, the name Virginia; tho the places where they landed are now in N. Corolina
Sir W. Raleigh ſent Sir R. Greenville with 7 veſſels to ſettle Virginia—a ſmall colony left at Roanoke under Gov. Lane, Aug. 1585
J. Davis ſailed to the ſtrait of his name
Gov. Lane and the colony return to Eng. with Sir F. Drake, who had been on an expedition againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in America 1586
Gov. Lane carried tobacco to England
J. Davis, in his third voyage, diſcovered and named Cumberland iſlands 1587
Sir R. Grenville left a ſecond colony at Roanoke in 1586, which was deſtroyed by the natives
A third colony under Gov. White left at Roanoke—Gov. White returned to Eng. for ſupplies

Sir W. Raleigh aſſigned his patent to Gov. White, Thos. Smith and others, March 7 1589
Gov. White returned to Roanoke, but not finding the ſettlers, went to the W. Indies, and finally to England 1590
Whale fiſhery begun by the Engliſh 1593
Sir W. Raleigh made a voyage to Guiana, burnt St. Joſeph in Trinidad—ſailed into the Oronoke 1595
Barthol. Goſnold came to America, named Cape Cod, landed on Cuttahunk, and began to build, but returned 1602
Samuel Champlain, ſailed up the St. Lawr.
The Sieur de Mont, with Champlain for a pilot explored the coaſt of Acadia, entered the Bay of Fundy, named the river Wegondy, St. John, built a fort and paſſed the winter on St. Croix, an iſland in the Scooduc 1604—5
De Mont ſettled Port Royal, now Annapolis, the firſt ſettlement in Nova Scotia 1605
Virginia divided and by letters patent, the ſouthern part was granted to Sir Thomas Gates and others, called the London company, the northern part to the Plymouth company, April 10 1606
Capt. Newport, arrived in Virginia and began the firſt effectual ſettlement on the river Powhatan [James] called Jamestown, April 26 1607
Capt. Smith firſt explored the Cheſopeak 1608
Quebec founded by Samuel Champlain
Mr Robinſon's church migrate to Holland
Second charter of Virginia to the earl of Saliſbury and others, May 23 1609
Mr. Robinſon's church removed to Leyden
Capt. Hudſon diſcovered the River Manhattan, now called by his name
Newfoundland ſettled under J. Gray, Gov. 1610
Capt. Hudſon diſcovered the bay which bears his name, his crew mutined and ſet him afloat in an open boat, and he periſhed 1610—11
Champlain diſcovered and named Lake-Champlain 1611
Third charter of Virg. extended to include Bermuda, 300 leagues to ſea, March 12 1612
Bermuda ſettled under gov. Moor
J. Rolfe married Pocahontas, daughter of Powhatan, April 1613
Capt. Smith made a fiſhing voyage to the northern part of America, made a chart of the coaſt, which he preſented to Prince Charles who gave the country the name of New England. 1614
A fort or trading houſe, built on the Hudſon near Albany by the Dutch between 1610 14
The Dutch lay claim to the diſcoveries of Hudſon and ſettle Manhattan, now N. Y. 1614
W. Baffin diſcovered the bay of his name 16[illegible]
Great peſtilence or yellow

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to Penobſcot 1618
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:2 N. S. 1620
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Virginians, March
1622
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ɔy the crown
granted Barbadoes
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Maſſ. from the
of Plym. March
1628
led by the Eng'iſh 1628
led by Gov. Endi-
om the crown
g the Plymouth
grant and erecting the Maſſachuſetts company into a corporation May 4 1629
Carolina granted to Sir Robert Heath Oct. 30 1629
Charleſton, Boſton, Watertown and Dorcheſter ſettled by Gov. Winthrop and others 1630
Patent to Plymouth colony from the counci of Plymouth Jan. 13
The council of Plymouth granted lands to ſettlers on Pemaquid Feb. 29 1631
Patent of Connecticut from the earl of Warwick March 19
Firſt veſſel built in Maſſachuſetts, called the *Bleſſing of the Bay*, launched July 4
Grant of Maryland to lord Baltimore June 20 1632
Montſerrat and Antigua ſettled by the Eng. and St. Euſtatia by the Dutch
The Dutch built a fort on the weſt bank of the Connecticut, in the preſent town of Hartford 1633
The Plymouth people, after the Dutch, erected a trading houſe on the weſt bank of the Con. in the preſent town of Windſor Oct.
Firſt ſettlement in Maryland at St. Mary's
The council of Plymouth ſurrendered their Charter to the crown June 11
Firſt Aſſembly in Maryland convened in Feb. 1635 divided into two branches 1639
Wethersfield the oldeſt town in Con. ſettled by people from Watertown, Maſſ. 1634

Windſor ſettled by people from Dorcheſter 1635
Saybrook ſettled by J. Winthrop's men Nov.
Martinico and Guadaloupe ſettled by the French, alſo Cayenne
Hartford ſettled by Mr. Hooker and his congregation from Newtown, Cambridge, Maſſ. 1635—6
Roger Williams ſettled and named Prov. 1636
The Pequots deſtroyed by Connecticut, May 26 1637
Rhode Iſland ſettled by Mr. Coddington, March 24; Great earthquake June 1 1638
New-Haven ſettled by Mr. Davenport &c. Ap.
St. Lucia firſt ſettled by the Engliſh, diſpoſſeſſed by the natives 1641
Newport ſettled 1639
Maine granted to Sir F. Gorges, April 3
Firſt printing preſs eſtabliſhed at Cam. Maſſ.
Original conſtitution of Connecticut eſtabliſhed, Jan. 14
Surinam ſettled by the French 1640; who abandoned it for its inſalubrity, 1641, the Engliſh then took poſſeſſion
A code of laws firſt eſtabliſhed in Maſſ.
New Hamp. united with Maſſ. April 14 1641
Confederation of Maſſachuſetts, Plymouth, Connecticut and New-Haven for defenſe 1643
The French ſettled St. Bartholomews
The earl of Warwick incorporated the ſettlers of *Prov.* Newport &c. *March* 14 1644
Firſt aſſembly of Rhode Iſland and agreed upon a body of laws, May 19 1647
Marigalante, ſettled by the French
Firſt influenza mentioned in Amer. annals
Peſtilential yellow fever ſwept away ſeveral thouſand of the inhabitants of Barbadoes and St. Kitts 1647-8
St. Bartholomew ſettled by the French 1648
Maſſachuſetts laws firſt publiſhed
Cambridge platform compoſed and adopted
Anguilla ſettled by the Engliſh 1650
Grenada ſettled by the French 1652
The Engliſh took and ſettled Dominico 1661
Tranſlation of the N. Teſtament into Indian by Mr. Eliot finiſhed and printed
Charles II. granted a charter to Connecticut incorporating New Haven with it, April 23 1662
Charles II. confirmed the charter of Maſſachuſetts by letter, June 28
Charter granted to Rhode-Iſland and Providence Plantations, July 8
A great earthquake in Canada and New-England, Jan. 26. 1663
Grant of Carolina to the Earl of Clarendon and 7 others, March 24
This grant enlarged by a new charter, June 1665
Firſt ſettlement in N. Carolina on Chowan, about the middle of this century
New-Haven conſented to a union with Connecticut,

ber 1664
ɔt's Indian bible
:ted and printed
'etherlands taken
ıe Dutch and gran-
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ıtent, March 12,
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Drange taken and
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in 1666, again de-
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North Carolina,
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f Maine 1668
yle with a colony
ı plantation at Port
in Carolina, he
1670
ɔny removed and
a ſettlement on the
f Aſhley river un-
J. Yeamans which
ılled old Charleſ-
1671
ıbitants removed
an the town now
called Charleſtown 1680
Fort Frontenac built, Marquette and Joliet ſail down the Miſſiſippi 1673
N. York taken by the Dutch 1673, reſtored and confirmed to the Engliſh by treaty 1674
Connecticut laws reviſed in 1672, and firſt printed by Mr. Green at Cambridge 1675
Indian war in N. England under Phillip
War ceaſed by the death of Phillip, Aug. 12 1676
Bacon's inſurrection in Virginia, Jameſtown burnt by the inſurgents, death of Bacon 1676 to 1677
N. Hampſhire erected into a royal gov. 1679
Charter of Penn. to Wm. Penn, March 4 1681
Firſt form of gov. for Penn. April 25 1682
The Duke of York's deed of Pennſylvania to Penn, Aug. 21
The Duke's deed of a tract of 12 miles from New-Caſtle to the Hoarkills, Aug. 24
Firſt aſſembly in the province at Cheſter, December 4
Act of union annexing the Delaware counties to Penn. Act of ſettlement Dec. 6.
Firſt ſettlement of Philadelphia, Oct.
Charters of Maſſ. and Rhode Iſland vacated 1684
Albany incorporated, Port Royal in Carolina broke up by the Spaniards 1686
The firſt epiſc. church in Boſton formed
A charter given to New-York, by Gov. Dongan,

April 22, 1686 ; enlarged, and confirmed Jan. 15, 1730; again Oct. 14, 1732

Proceſs iſſued againſt Connecticut charter in 1685, but the charter was hid from Andros in a hollow oak and ſaved 1687

Androſs ſeized, depoſed and ſent to England 1689

Expedition to Quebec failed Oct. and Nov. 1690

Firſt bills of credit iſſued by Maſſachuſetts

Schenectady burnt and the inhabitants ſlain or ſcattered, Feb. 8 1690

Maſſachuſetts obtained a new charter, by which Plymouth was annexed to that colony 1692

Mild winter, veſſels went to Alb. in Feb. 1692-3

Severe winter, loaded ſleds paſſed on the ice from Boſton to Nantaſket, and on the Deleware 1697

Fatal yellow fever in Philadelphia 1699

Charleſton S. C. depopulated by a tempeſt and inundation, followed by ſmall pox and yellow fever, a great part of the town burnt

A library eſtabliſhed in Charleſton S. C. 1700

Charter of Philadelphia Oct. 25, charter of privileges for Penn. Oct. 28

The culture of ſilk and cotton introduced into Carolina about this time

Peſtilential yellow fever in New-York 1702

Rice introduced into Car. from Madagaſcar

Deerfield burnt and the inhabitants ſlain, taken captives or diſperſed Feb. 28 1704

Expedition by the New Eng. people againſt Port Royal failed 1707

A projected invaſion of Canada failed, no naval force arrived, and Nicholſon's troops, at Wood Creek, becoming ſickly, returned 1709

Port Royal taken by Gen. Nicholſon and its name changed to Annapolis, Oct. 2 1710

Poſt offices in America firſt eſtabliſhed

Congreſs of governors at New-London to conſult on an expedition to Canada. May 1 1711

An expedition againſt Quebec failed by the ſhipwreck of tranſports in St. Lawrence, Auguſt

The Tuſcaroras attacked N. Carolina, defeated by Col. Barnwell, migrated to the five nations, and formed a ſixth tribe 171

Iron began to be manufactured in Virginia

Spaniſh invaſion of S. Carolina defeated

Treaty of peace at Utrecht, April 11.—Nova Scotia ceded to France 171

Conſpiracy and invaſion of the Yamaſſes defeated by Gov. Craven and Carolinians

The greateſt ſnow ſtorm ever known, ſnow ſeveral feet deep, Feb. 17

Combination againſt the proprietary govt. in Carolina and a revolution 17

Northern lights which had diſappeared for almoſt a century appeared in N. England Dec. 11.

nall pox in Bof-
culation firſt in-
d by Dr. Boyl-
the recommenda-
Dr. C. Mather 1721
paper printed in
ork by Wm. Brad-
1725
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a by Wm. Parks 1726
ter fo lowed by a
earthquake, Oct.
3. 1727
t in Carolina inun-
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y was divided into
N. Carolina, and
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news paper in S.
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noreland county,
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f Free Maſonry in
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olina 1737
ere winter 1741—2
nvaſion of Georgia,
1742
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orated
pany was formed
1, and in 1776 re-
the Loganian libra-
comet appeared in
1743
g ſurrendered to
England troops,
y an Engliſh Squa-
dron, June 17
Indigo plant diſcovered in S. Caro ina 1745
French expedition under D. Anville, which menaced N. Eng. failed by means of a ſtorm, contagious fever in the fleet &c. 1746
Expedition againſt Nova Scotia failed 1746-7
Riots in Boſton in oppoſition to an impreſſment of ſeamen 1747
A library at Newport founded by A. Redwood 1747
Treaty of peace at Aix La Chapelle by which cape Breton and Lewiſburg were reſtored to France Oct. 18. 1748
Pennſylvania hoſpital eſtabliſhed by act of aſſembly, Feb. 7 1751
A tempeſt laid Charleſton under water in Sept. 1752
The proprietaries of Georgia ſurrendered their charter, and the colony became a royal government
Plan of a union of the Colonies agreed upon at Albany by commiſſioners—not ſanctioned by the crown 1754
Remarkably mild winters 1754-5 and 1755-6
Great earthquake, Nov. 18 1755
The French began to erect forts on the waters of Lake Erie and the Ohio 1752 & 1753
Major Waſhington ſent by Gov Dinwiddee of Vir. to require the French to withdraw, Oct. and Nov.
The French erect fort Du Queſne, where Pittſburg now ſtands 1754
The French ſurprized and defeated by Col Waſhington at the great meed-

ows
Col. Waſhington and his troops in fort Neceſſity ſurrendered to the French, July 4
Col. Waſhington appointed aiddecamp to Gen. Braddock. March 1755
Gen. Winſlow with Maſſachuſett's troops took poſſeſſion of Nova Scotia, June 1755 and the French inhabitants called Neutrals, were tranſplanted and their houſes deſtroyed.
Gen. Braddock defeated and killed at Monongahela, July 9
French under Dieſkau repulſed by Gen. Johnſon at Lake George
War declared againſt France, May 18 1756
Oſwego capitulated to Montcalm
Fort William Henry capitulated to the French 1757
Lewiſburg taken by the Britiſh, June 1758
Gen. Abercrombie defeated at Ticonderoga with great loſs, lord Howe killed July
Fort Frontenac taken by Col. Bradſtreet, Aug.
Fort du Queſne abandoned by the French and taken by the Engliſh, Nov.
Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken by Gen. Amherſt, July 27 and Aug. 4 1759
The French repulſed before Oſwego by Col. Haldiman, July 25
Niagara taken by the Engliſh, Gen. Prideax killed, July 25
Battle of Quebec, Gen. Wolfe and Montcalm killed, French defeated, Quebec capitulated, September
Montreal capitulated to the Engliſh, Sept. 8
Battle of Etchoe with the Cherokees 1760
The Cherokees defeated by Col. Grant and compelled to make peace, June 1761
Havanna taken by the Britiſh and provincials 1762
Definitive treaty of Peace ſigned at Paris, Feb, 10. 1763
The ſevereſt drouth known in America, no rain from May to Sept. 1761
An eruption of fire in Michuacan, began in 1760, continued ſeveral years and formed three mountains 6 miles in circuit, 1762 to 1766
Peſtilential diſeaſe in Mexico ſo general as to prevent the gathering of the wheat 1762
Bennington the oldeſt town in Vermont ſettled 1764
Medical lectures firſt read in Philadelphia
Firſt ſettlement in Tenneſſee 1765
Kentucky firſt ſettled by Col. Boon
Stamp act received the Royal aſſent Ma. 22 1765
Delegates from moſt of the colonies met at York in October, to remonſtrate againſt the ſtamp act and petition for its repeal
Stamp act repealed March 18 1766
An act impoſing a duty on tea, glaſs and painters colors imported into the colonies paſſed June 1767

regiments ar-
Boſton Sept. 1768
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and killed four
1770
overthrown by
lake and 30,000
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1773
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April 19 1775
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June 15, took
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Boſton July 2
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anada took fort
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Quebec, Gen.
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1776
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Vir. burnt by
, *Jan* 1 1776
oyaliſts in N.

Carolina defeated, Febru-
ary
Boſton evacuated by the
Britiſh, March 17
Gen. Waſhington arrived at
N. York Ap. 14
The Britiſh fleet and army
arrived at Sandy Hook
in June, landed on Staten
Iſland July 2
DECLARATION OF
INDEPENDENCE July 4
Battle on Long-Iſland,
Americans defeated, July
27
The troops withdrawn from
Long-Iſland July 28
N. York evacuated by the
American army Sept. 14
Gen. Arnold defeated on
Lake Champlain, Oct. 12
Battle at the White Plains,
Oct. 28
Fort Waſhington taken,
with 2000 priſoners, Nov.
16
American army retreated
thro' N. Jerſey and croſs
the Delaware, Nov. and
Dec.
Gen. Lee made priſoner
Dec. 13
A body of Heſſians attacked
and made priſoners at
Trenton, Dec. 26
Battle at Princeton, Gen.
Mercer killed, Jan: 3 1777
A convention declared Ver-
mont to be an independ-
ent ſtate, Jan. 16
Danbury deſtroyed, Gen.
Wooſter killed, April 27
and 28
Burgoyne ſurrendered to
Gen. Gates Oct. 17
Battle of Germantown Gen.
Naſh killed, October 5
Battle of Monmouth, June
28
Gen. Lee arreſted June 30

tried and ſuſpended for one year

Savannah taken by the Britiſh under Col. Campbell, Dec.

Gen. Tryon invaded New-Haven, deſtroyed the ſtores, July 5. then burnt Fairfield July 9, and Norwalk July 12

Stony Point taken by aſſault by General Wayne, July 15

Aſſault upon Savannah unſucceſsful, Pulaſki killed, Oct. 9

The winter the moſt rigorous ever known in America, Long-Iſland ſound was covered with ice, and the Cheſapeak was paſſed with loaded carriages at Annapolis 1779-80

Gen. Lincoln capitulated and Charleſton ſurrendered May 12

Americans defeated at Camden, Aug. 16

A French fleet and army under Rochambeau arrived at Newport July 10

Gen. Arnold's treaſon diſcovered, he eſcaped Sept. 25

Major Andre taken, executed Oct. 2

Great hurricanes in the W. Indies Oct. 2 and 11, in Barbadoes alone periſhed 5 or 6000 perſons

Battle of the Cowpens, Britiſh defeated, Jan. 17 1781

Confederation completed by the ratification of Maryland, Feb.

Battle of Guilford, Am. repulſed, March 15

The combined armies under Gen. Waſhington decamp from the Hudſon and march for Virginia, Auguſt 19

N. London burnt, Fort Griſwold ſtormed and the garriſon put to the ſword by Arnold, Sept. 6

Battle at Eutaw Springs; victory of Gen Green, Sept. 8

Lord Cornwallis and the army beſieged in Yorktown, Sept. 25

The Britiſh army ſurrendered to Gen. Waſhington, which decided the Revolutionary conteſt, Oct. 19 1781

The Bible firſt printed in America by Robert Aiken, Philadelphia 1782

The army diſbanded Oct. 18, farewell addreſs of Gen. Waſhington to the army, November 2.

N. York evacuated by the Britiſh army, November 25

Gen. Waſhington reſigned his commiſſion Dec. 23

Severe winter 1783-4 great floods in the rivers in March

Hurricane at Jamaica deſtroyed all the ſhipping, &c. July 30

A moſt deſtructive hurricane in the Windward iſlands Aug. 25. in the Leward iſlands Aug. 27

Mr. J. Madiſon firſt moved the houſe of delegates in Virginia to appoint commiſſioners to meet commiſſioners of the other ſtates to form commercial regulations, which gave riſe to the convention which formed the preſent conſtitution, Dec.

ion in Maſſachu-
gan Aug. 1786
oners met at An-
pt. 14, 1786 but
ned to May 25
when delegates,
ore ample powers,
ied and agreed up-
preſent conſtitution,
nber 17 1787
eting of congreſs
the preſent conſti-
at New-York,
Waſhington inaugu-
firſt Preſident,
30 1789
e ceded to the U. S.
Carolina
klin died in his 85th
April 17 1790
y erected into an
ndent ſtate, Decem-

t admitted into the
Feb. 18 1791
of congreſs eſtab.
Mar. 3 1791
y admitted into the
June 1 1792
ation of neutrality
e Preſident of the
d States, April 22 1793
rancois burnt, and
nite inhabitants maſ-
by the blacks,
20
kable froſt May 17 1794
e admitted into the
June 1 1796
ſhington's addreſs
people of the Uni-
ates on his retiring
the Preſidency
17 1796
earthquake at Qui-
America, deſtroyed
and 40,000 inhab-
February 1797
paſſed an act de-
the treaty with
France null and void,
July 7
Capt Truxton in the Con-
ſtellation took the French
frigate Inſurgent Feb. 10 1799
Great ſnow in Carolina and
Georgia Jan. 7 1800
Remarkable flood in the
Connecticut, Mar. 20-25
Gen. Waſhington died Dec.
14 aged 68
The college at Princeton
burnt Mar. 7
The ſtate of Ohio admitted
into the union
Unexampled tempeſt, be-
gan in W. Indies Sept. 2
and raged three days, on
the 7, 8 and 9, it inunda-
ted Carolina and Georgia,
with immenſe deſtruc-
tion 1804
Severeſt winter ſince 1780
from Dec. 20 to the laſt
week in Feb. 1804-5

Treaties of the United States,

With France Feb. 6, 1778;
Holland Oct. 8, 1782;
Sweden April 3, 1783;
of peace with Great Brit-
ain, prelim. Nov. 30,
1782; Definitive Sept. 3,
1783; Pruſſia Sept. 10,
1785; of amity and com-
merce with Great Brit-
ain Nov. 19, 1794; with
France for Louiſiana
April 30, 1803

Colleges and Univerſities founded.

Harvard, Maſſ. 1638; Wil-
liam and Mary, Vir. 1693;
Yale College, Con. 1701;
College in Phil. 1753;
Univer. of Penn. 1791;
Naſſau Hall, N. Jerſey,
1746; N. York, 1754;
Dartmou h, N. Hamp-
ſhire, 1769; Brown Col-
lege, Providence 1764;
Hampden Sidney, Vir.

1774; Washington, Ma. 1782; Dickinson College, Carlisle, Penn 1783; St John's at Annapolis, Ma. 1784; Cokesbury, in Abingdon, Ma 1785; Universfity in Georgia, 1785; Franklin, at Lancaster Penn. 1787; Universfity in N. Carolina, 1789; Georgetown, Ma. 1789; Williams College, Mass. 1790; Univer. of Burlington, Ver. 1791 Greenville, Ten. 1794; Union at Schenectady, 1794; Bowdoin, in Maine, 1794; at Winnesbury and Beaufort, S. Carolina, 1795; Transylvania, at Lex. Ken. 1798; at Middlebury Ver. 1800

Literary Societies instituted.

American Philosophical, Phil. 1769; American Academy, Mass. 1780; N York Agricultural incorp. 1793; Con. Academy, 1801; Mass. Historical, 1791, incorp. 1794

Influenza in North America.

1647, 1655. 1697-8, 1732, 1737, 1747, 1756-7, 1761, 1772, 1781, 1789 and 90. 1802,

Unusual darkness, which rendered candles necessary in the day time, Oct. 21, 1716; Aug. 9, 1732; Oct. 19. 1762 at Detroit; May 19, 1780; Oct. 9th, 15th and 16th, 1785 in Canada; Oct 29th, 1789 in Kentucky

Great Fires, burnt, in Boston 45 houses, Nov. 27, 1676; 80 houses, 70 stores, &c. Aug. 8, 1679; Oct. 23, 1683; best part of the town; 1711, 174 houses, 175 stores, March 20, 1760 one part of Charleston 1740. In New-York 1776. In Boston, 100 buildings Ap. 24, 1787, and 96 buildings July 30, 1794. Great in Charleston, June 20, 1796—most of Savannah Dec. 26, 1796. A square in New-York Dec. 9, 1796—in Richmond Nov. 22, 1798—most of Wilmington, N. C. Oct. 31, 1798—most of Norfolk Virg. Feb. 22, 1804.

First News paper printed, in Boston, the news letter Ap. 24, 1704—In Philadelphia, the American Weekly Mercury, Dec. 22, 1719—In New-York. the New-York Gazette, Oct. 16, 1725—In R. Island, the Rhode Island Gazette, Oct. 1732. In Con. New-Haven, the Connecticut Gazette, 1755—In New Hampshire, 1756—In Providence, 1762—In Kentucky, 1787—In Tennessee, 1790.

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